

growth of various industries in the country, the most important of which was the textile industry. Factories rose in different parts of the land. England became more and more a country of towns. The growth of industry led to an enormous production of goods, and England soon became "the Workshop of the World."

In Europe, at this time, monarchies were being overthrown and republics established. In France, the people rose in rebellion and executed their King and Queen. England, however, remained unaffected by these changes. Englishmen remained loyal to their King and to the traditions of their country. They hated everything that savoured of violent change.

We have now come to modern times in this very short sketch of the growth of the English nation. In the first half of the 19th century, England added considerably to her colonial possessions. Intrepid British explorers plunged into the primeval tangle of the African forests, braved the perils of tropical deserts, and established British supremacy over strange and savage men in the innermost parts of Africa. A similar enterprising spirit led to the colonization of Australia and New Zealand. It is a manifestation of the same spirit which takes the Englishmen to the Poles or sends them scaling the heights of Everest. By the end of the 19th century, Britain had possessions in every corner of the world. These were efficiently guarded by the British navy, which now dominated the seas. The British merchantships

HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY
THE KING-EMPEROR
AND HIS EMPIRE

A PAGEANT OF PROGRESS

ISSUED ON THE OCCASION OF
THE ROYAL SILVER JUBILEE

ROCHOUSE & SONS
The Esplanade, Madras

THE KING-EMPEROR
AND HIS EMPIRE

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FOREWORD

His Imperial Majesty George V is completing the twenty-fifth year of his reign in May 1935, to the universal joy of the millions of his subjects. The celebration of this glorious event is called the Silver Jubilee. King George is the first king of England and the first Emperor of India, the Silver Jubilee of whose accession to the throne is being celebrated.

On the eve of this grand occasion, it is fitting that we should pass in a kind of rapid review the extent and nature of the British Empire, the ideals for which it stands, and the marvellous developments which have taken place in India under British rule ; always remembering that the central institution which keeps Britain and her Empire including India in a well-cemented unity is the throne, now worthily occupied by our gracious King-Emperor. Our survey necessarily includes an account of the personality of His Imperial Majesty, which has been one of the important factors contributing to the esteem with which the Royal Family is regarded to-day.

On the day of the Jubilee, glittering concourses, dressed in a picturesque manner in all the colours of the rainbow, will assemble all over India, as in other parts of the Empire, to express their loyal acclamations. Let them ponder also, on that day, on the wonderful things achieved by that small island of Britain, and how much these things mean to us in India. This book forms a humble help to steer the ship of thought in that direction.

We put forth, now, this offering of duty and love, on the occasion of the Royal Silver Jubilee, like the dainty flower-tributes which, according to our beautiful Indian custom, are offered to objects of love and devotion. May this offering be worthy of the occasion and of this great country, and may it achieve the object for which it is intended !



H. I. M. The King-Emperor



H. I. M. The Queen-Emress

H. I. M. The King-Emperor and His Empire

CHAPTER I

THE MAKING OF THE NATION

The history of the English Nation really begins with the invasion of Britain by the famous Roman Conqueror Julius Caesar, about two thousand years ago. The Romans found in the island a race of people called Britons, who were tall and strong, and fair of complexion. For over four hundred years, Britain was a part of the Roman Empire. During this period the land was happy and prosperous. The Romans constructed roads throughout the land, built towns, and established peace and order. Learning was encouraged so much that England could boast of many Latin scholars in those times.

But, at the beginning of the fifth century, the Roman legions were withdrawn from Britain, because Rome herself was hard pressed by enemies at her own gates. The Britons, now thrown on their own resources, were soon attacked by fierce sea-rovers, called Angles and Saxons. The love of the sea, which runs in the English blood, springs certainly from the old sea-roving spirit of the Anglo-Saxons. These inva-

ders were heathens ; but after they settled in England, they accepted the Christian faith as a result of the work of missionaries sent by the Pope from Rome.

In four or five centuries, the Anglo-Saxons lost all their war-like habits and settled down to a peaceful, hard-working life. At this time, from over the cold North Sea, bands of cruel heathen Danes began to attack the country. The Danes could not be entirely driven off, but still we hear of strong English kings keeping them in check. Such a monarch was Alfred, who was so loved by his subjects that he was given the title 'the Great.' Under him and his successors, the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes gradually fused into one people.

In the year 1066, England was invaded by a foreign race called the Normans. These came from Normandy in France, and were led by their Duke, an able warrior named William. Very quickly, the whole of England came under their rule. This invasion did very little, however, to impair the integrity of the English race. What happened was that the English, by sheer strength of numbers and by their strong character, gradually absorbed the Normans, so that England remained, as before, the land of the English.

But the Norman invasion brought about important changes in many features of national life. The spirit and manners of the English underwent a considerable change, being gradually influenced by the polish and refinement of the conquerors. Far more important than this was the disappearance of old practices and beliefs, and the introduction of new ones in such

subjects as law, government, hunting and even cookery. William and his sons were very capable monarchs and they gave the country what it wanted—peace and order. William the Conqueror rewarded his followers with grants of the conquered country and these newly-created barons, as they were called, were expected to be faithful to him and fight his wars for him. But the extent of their loyalty depended upon the strength of the ruling monarch. Thus, when William's third son Henry died, leaving the throne to his daughter, Matilda, the Barons put up another candidate to the throne, a weak man named Stephen, in whose reign they were left unchecked in their oppression and tyranny over the people. But the next king, Henry II, sternly repressed the powers and privileges of these nobles, and established good government once again in the country.

Richard I, who succeeded Henry, was a warlike monarch and spent much of his time and the country's wealth in fighting against the Turks in the Holy Land. These wars were called the Crusades. The part played by Richard in one of these Crusades is narrated in "The Talisman" a well-known novel of Sir Walter Scott. Richard's younger brother, John, who succeeded him, was a tyrant. He oppressed the people with grievous taxes and also involved himself and the country in a serious breach with the Pope. He became so unpopular that all the important classes in the country, led by the Barons, rose against him and compelled him to accept their demands, which were embodied in a document called

the "Magna Carta." This charter is a landmark in English constitutional history, because it established the principle that the king's mere word could no longer be the law in the land.

It was in the same century that the first attempt was made to unite Wales and Scotland with England. Edward I was a very strong monarch. One of the first tasks he set himself as King of England was to subdue Wales. Led by their chief Llewellyn, the Welshmen put up a heroic but futile resistance. In 1301, Edward's eldest son was given the title of Prince of Wales, and ever since, the eldest son of the English King has borne that title. In 1296, Edward began his war with Scotland. But his victories over the Scottish forces did not help him in subjugating their country. Led by Robert Bruce, the Scotch people continued to defy Edward till his death, and secured complete independence for their country by defeating Edward's weak son in the Battle of Bannockburn.

In the fourteenth and the fifteenth centuries, the Kings of England became involved in a long war with France, called the Hundred Years' War, because hostilities between the two countries continued for over a century. France was, in those days, troubled by internal strife, and the English monarchs inflicted crushing defeats on it. During this period, the wealth of England increased considerably as a result of her commercial activities. It was this national glory and prosperity which inspired England's first great poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, 'the Morning

Star of English Poetry.' Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales' is a collection of interesting stories in verse, throwing considerable light on the social life of England in those times.

The war with France occupied the energies of the turbulent English nobles. But, in the reign of Henry VI, France became united and defeated England in a series of battles, winning back all its lost possessions. The nobles, who returned to England, spent their idle time in brewing trouble in the country. Henry VI was weak and incompetent. There was also the question of a disputed succession to the throne. Hence a bloody civil war ensued, which lasted for thirty years. These wars are called the Wars of the Roses. The work of putting down the nobles and giving peace to the land was accomplished by a dynasty of strong rulers called the Tudors.

The Tudor dynasty ruled over England in the last quarter of the 15th and throughout the 16th centuries. This period witnessed an awakening of men's intellect and a widening of knowledge. Men began to look around and inquire. Many new lands were discovered; for example, America. These discoveries later gave an impetus to England's colonial enterprise. The beginnings of the British Empire were laid during the reign of the last Tudor monarch, Queen Elizabeth. The English seamen, who had the secret support of Elizabeth, often came into conflict with Spain. The rivalry between England and Spain ended with the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. England thereby established herself as the

Mistress of the Seas. The intellectual reawakening, which began in the 15th century, reached its highest point in the 16th century. In England, its best results are seen in the glories of Elizabethan literature. The greatest English dramatist, Shakespeare, and some of the greatest English poets like Spenser, lived and wrote during the time of Queen Elizabeth. It was in Tudor times, again, that England broke away from the Church of Rome, and established for herself a separate reformed Church, called the Anglican Church, over which the King is supreme. This remains the State Church of England to this day.

Under the Tudors, there was a steady increase in the wealth and prosperity of the country gentry and the traders. The former took a leading part in the local government of the country. The merchant classes became prominent as a result of the vast growth of trade and commerce, and the formation of great merchant companies like the East India Company.

The Tudor Kings were followed by the Stuarts, who misused the powers of the strong monarchy of the Tudors and behaved in a despotic manner. Hence, there arose a struggle between the King and the Parliament, the former standing for the old privileges of the Crown, and the latter for constitutional liberty. Such was the strength of Parliament that one Stuart King, Charles I, was defeated in open battle and executed; and another King James II. was forced to fly from England. This struggle was due

also to religious differences between the King and the people. Large sections of the people had now become Puritans, that is, extreme Protestants, and the Stuart Kings persecuted them so much that they were forced to seek more congenial homes abroad. One such party, known as the Pilgrim Fathers, sailed in 1620 to America and led the way to the building up of the New England Colonies. John Milton is the finest spokesman in English verse of Puritanism.

By the 18th century, England had developed into a great colonial power. She had set up a number of colonies in North America, and had established herself on a firm footing in India. Her activities brought her into conflict with France, and there arose a series of wars between the two countries for colonial supremacy, the most decisive of which was the Seven Years' War. At the end of this gigantic struggle, England emerged triumphant. Her supremacy was unquestioned in India. She obtained possession of Canada. She was feared and respected as the undisputed Mistress of the Seas. Towards the close of the 18th century, the English colonies in North America separated themselves from the mother country. This, however, did not injure England seriously because it tended to turn her attention elsewhere with greater zeal.

The latter half of the 18th century witnessed far-reaching changes in the economic condition of England. Methods of agriculture were improved, and the fertility of the soil was developed to its fullest extent. A series of mechanical inventions led to the

carried the world's trade; and London became the financial hub of the whole world.

A succession of able administrators, such as few countries can boast of, has given every part of this wide Empire the benefits of good and efficient government. Britain's Empire in India, which started from the modest activities of a mere chartered company, had now outgrown the capacities of such corporations. In 1858 the Crown assumed entire charge of the Indian administration and, ever since that day, the English monarchs have been evincing a keen interest in the growth and welfare of the Indian people, and in the solution of the many difficult problems that beset this land of ours. His Majesty the King-Emperor rules over the largest Empire in the whole world. The prestige of Britain among the nations of the world has never been greater than it is at the present day.

CHAPTER II

THE STORY OF PARLIAMENT

The British Parliament which is now termed the 'Mother of Parliaments,' started from very humble and apparently unpromising beginnings. It has come to its present stature as the result of slow growth through centuries. Now the government of England and of her far-flung possessions is conducted by Parliament. As we all know, Parliament consists of two Houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Of these, the latter is composed of representatives elected by the people; quite naturally, therefore, it is also the more important and powerful of the two. We shall now sketch the growth of this great institution.

Let us turn our eyes to the Saxon period when kings like Alfred ruled over England. When some important state affair had to be discussed, the king summoned a group of individuals whom he had chosen for their loyalty and experience, to give him advice. Such a meeting was called the Witenagemot, a word which means 'assembly of wise men.' This practice was continued after the Norman conquest also; when they were in need of money, the kings obtained it through the help of Councils composed of nobles and church dignitaries. In 1215, King John tried to raise money without consulting the Council,

by levying arbitrary taxes; and so the barons forced him to sign the "Magna Carta." This 'Great Charter' embodied clauses safeguarding the rights which were claimed by the nobles; and is important for the reason that it placed a check on the king's exercise of autocratic power. The king promised therein that he would govern the land, respecting the rights of the nobles as well as those of the other classes.

The next King, Henry III, was continually in debt. The Council of nobles and church dignitaries, which had given him money again and again, would give no more. So in 1254, he required the sheriffs to send four representatives from each county in order that they might meet in London and consider what they could possibly give to the king. This was the beginning of the idea of popular representation. By the reign of Edward I, this method had become the accepted procedure. We can picture the king seated along with the great nobles of the country and great church officials, like the Bishops and Archbishops. The representatives of the shires and boroughs would stand humbly before him. This meeting was called a "Parliament"—a word which comes from French *parler*, meaning to 'talk'.

The famous Parliament summoned by Edward I in 1295 is called the Model Parliament, for it laid the foundations of all later Parliaments. To this assembly came representatives of the people, and also the body of barons and ecclesiastics summoned by traditional right. The former came to be known as the 'House of Commons' and the latter as the 'House

of Lords,' when shortly after the reign of Edward I they began to hold separate meetings.

In the 14th and the 15th centuries, on account of the huge expenses of the Hundred Years' War, the kings of England were dependent on the money granted to them by Parliament. Consequently they were generally unable to refuse any demand put forward by Parliament as a condition for the grant of money. The mediaeval Parliament was really the tool of the turbulent nobles, who, therefore, were able to control the administration of the country. But the Tudor monarchs put down these nobles and established peace in the land. They were very tactful, and were able to lead the people and the Parliament along the paths desired by them. During their reign, the power of the Crown increased enormously. Still, occasionally we find Parliament asserting its rights as it did when it withstood the demands of Wolsey, a powerful minister of Henry VIII.

The Stuarts misused the powers of the strong Tudor monarchy, and made themselves despots. But Parliament had become conscious of its powers by this time, and was prepared to try its strength against the despotic monarchy. The point at issue between the Crown and the Parliament was as to which of them was supreme; the Crown took its stand on the theory of Divine Right, by which its actions could not be questioned by any earthly authority, and the Parliament held that it had the right to control the Crown. The struggle continued in all its intensity till 1688. In the reign of Charles I, the conflict

became so acute that both parties resorted to arms. The king was defeated and executed in 1649.

For eleven years thereafter, until Charles II came to the throne, Parliament had a very chequered career. When the Restoration took place the old state of affairs came back, and Parliaments of the old kind did or did not meet as the king wished. But Charles II wisely managed to avoid any conflict with Parliament. His successor, James II, was less fortunate, and defied Parliament with the result that he was deposed in 1688 and William of Orange, the Stadtholder of Holland, was invited by the Parliament to accept the Crown. The new king sat on the throne by virtue of Parliamentary sanction. The Bill of Rights of 1689 to which he gave his assent asserted the supremacy of Parliament, and laid down the limitations of monarchy. Henceforth, Parliament was supreme.

Meanwhile, internal changes were taking place in Parliament itself. The House of Commons had become more powerful than the House of Lords, with the greater control that the Commons exercised over money matters. Another great change was the development of the Party System and Cabinet Government. The King had been choosing his ministers without minding in the least what his Parliament thought of them. Sometimes, Parliament complained against some ministers, but often in vain. But a change began in the time of William III. There had grown up two great political parties in the country, called the "Whigs" and the "Tories." William, at

first, selected his ministers from both parties, but found this mixed ministry unworkable. So, in 1694, he called together a ministry composed of Whigs alone, as they had a majority in Parliament. The "Whig Junto," as it was called, was the real beginning of the Cabinet System. By gradual stages, this system has been perfected, until in modern times, the government is conducted by the Cabinet, whose members belong to the political party which has a majority in the House of Commons. Thus, the ministers are responsible to Parliament, and can hold office only so long as they have the support of a majority of its members.

The British Parliament, which before the nineteenth century, had represented chiefly the landed classes, became, by a series of Reform Acts culminating with the Act of 1928, a real democratic assembly, that is, an assembly representing all classes of people, and elected on the universal adult suffrage basis. Thus, England has realised the ideal of the 'government of the people, by the people, for the people.' This principle of government has also been adopted in other parts of the Empire like Canada, Australia and South Africa. The prestige of the British Parliament is so high that many other nations have set up similar institutions in their own countries. It is in this twofold sense that the British Parliament is called 'the Mother of Parliaments.'

But Parliamentary Government alone does not mean everything. It is possible for a person to be oppressed by a Parliament as much as by a despotic

monarch. The individual citizen, therefore, must have protection for his rights. Athens, in Ancient Greece, had complete democracy. Yet, the Assembly of Athens once sentenced to death without trial a large number of people in an island which had rebelled against her. But, England, besides developing Parliamentary Government, has also evolved the idea of the liberty of the citizen. No British subject can be punished or molested in any way except for a definite breach of the law, which must be proved before a court. The accused is tried by a Judge and a Jury consisting of twelve citizens. The function of the judge is to preside over the court and to sum up the details of the case to the Jury; but it is the Jury which decides whether the accused is guilty. The judge then pronounces the sentence. It follows, therefore, that nobody can be convicted unless his guilt is made manifest to the impartial judgment of a body of his fellowmen. Britain has thus set up before the world a model in safeguarding the liberty of the individual.

CHAPTER III

THE WORKSHOP OF THE WORLD

“Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war.” In the opening chapter, we traced the evolution of the British nation. We shall here narrate how England has become the most industrialised country in the world, and has earned for herself the title of “the World’s Workshop.”

A few centuries ago, England was, like India, more a land of villages than of towns. The trackless forests gave place, in course of time, to verdant meadows on which cattle and sheep pastured, and to cultivated fields where crops were raised in a primitive fashion. These fields were held largely by small farmers, who possessed little scattered strips of land very much like those in India. Their agricultural implements were crude and home-made, and they followed the principle that no man should undertake to guide a plough who could not make one. They led simple lives, supplying all their wants by their own labour. What industry there was, was largely carried on by artisans, called Master Craftsmen, who pursued the industry in their own homes, either with the help of their families or with the help of a few boys called Apprentices. Trade was chiefly confined to the small market towns and the little seaports, as the means of communication were not

sufficiently improved. Goods could be sent from one part of England to another only along ill-kept and damaged tracks on pack-horses, or carried down the streams in crude boats.

These conditions underwent considerable changes during the 18th century. The first important advance took place in agriculture. The population had increased enormously, and to provide food for all, it was essential that the old farming methods should be improved. The small holdings were consolidated into large farms under enterprising landlords, who eagerly adopted new methods. Further, more care was devoted to the scientific breeding of cattle. Today, the livestock bred in England are considered to be the best in the world.

But, these changes which constituted the Agricultural Revolution, were eclipsed by the Industrial Revolution which introduced new and improved methods of manufacture. The Industrial Revolution was the result of the inventions of a few humble individuals who had no technical training. With remarkable strength of faith, they persevered in spite of opposition from labourers, who feared that machines might displace them, and from capitalists, who made use of their inventions but did not pay for them. One invention led to another until, finally, industry was carried on in big factories where men worked for wages and tended the machines.

The most important of the inventions affected the textile industry. John Kay's invention of the Flying

Shuttle in 1735 was the first of the series. The Shuttle enabled the weaver to do his work in half the time and also weave wide cloths, without the necessity of employing two pairs of hands, as formerly. In 1767 James Hargreaves invented a Spinning Jenny which made it possible to work many spindles at a time. This invention provoked the hostility of the workers, who, in a fit of fury, wrecked his house and the machines in it. James Arkwright improved on this Spinning Jenny, and his machine was worked by water power; it carded, spun and wove in one continuous process. It is a noteworthy fact that this was the first time in textile industry when water was used as a motive power. Samuel Crompton "founded the muslin trade" by inventing a machine called the 'Mule' that could spin delicate yarn. These inventions had only speeded up spinning. It was not until 1813 that Dr. Edmund Cartwright came to the help of the weavers with his 'Power Loom.' The textile industry was thus completely mechanised, and the most amazing and beneficial results have followed.

The driving power of steam still further revolutionised the industry. In 1769, James Watt patented his Steam Engine. This discovery led to still further expansion in textile manufacture, and the period between 1788 and 1803 has come to be known as the "Golden Age" of that industry. England, to this day, holds the supreme position in the textile industry.

Other and similar inventions revolutionised the coal and iron industries, with the result that before

the end of the 19th century, England led the world in the production of coal and iron machinery. The growth of manufactures and their tendency to get localised in particular places led to the springing up of numerous towns around the factories. Obscure villages like Manchester, Birmingham and Sheffield in Lancashire and Staffordshire grew into sudden importance. Manchester, Eldham and Rochdale specialised in the textile industry, while Leeds, Bradford and Keighley were noted for their woollen goods. Agricultural machinery, such as steam ploughs and threshing machines, came to be produced chiefly at Lincoln, Grantham and Norwich.

There grew up a powerful class of business magnates and captains of industry, who became, from now on, a very important interest in the country. The growth of industry led to the expansion of trade, and to facilitate trade, the transport system of the country was also improved. An extensive system of canals made it possible for goods to be conveyed over long distances easily and cheaply. A network of well-constructed roads connected the different parts of the country with one another.

The introduction of railways in the 19th century revolutionised land-transport. On September 27th, 1825, crowds of people, most of them incredulous, thronged to witness an obscure man named George Stephenson, driving his little engine which, he claimed, would drag a long train of wagons. To the amazement of many, the engine actually moved off, and there was a terrific burst of cheering from the

dense crowd. Thus, the first railway train in the world started on its journey. Still, it took some time for the people to reconcile themselves to this new means of transport. It was asserted that the smoke from the engine would blight the crops in the wayside fields, and kill the birds flying overhead. Gradually, however, the new invention won its way. The railway was thus a British invention which, like other inventions, was adopted later by other countries. Today, the British railways hold the record for speed and safety. The train, called the "Flying Scotsman" covers the distance between London and Edinburgh ($392\frac{1}{4}$ miles) in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours! This forms the highest record set till now in the speed of long-distance Express trains.

Britain also rapidly developed a great line of steamships, and her commercial predominance became unquestioned. Since she had possessions in every corner of the world, she began to carry the world's trade. London became the greatest city in the world. Up and down the Thames passed ships laden with men and merchandise, coming from every land under the sun.

CHAPTER IV

THE BUILDING OF THE EMPIRE

The 15th century marked the beginning of a new era in the history of the world. It appeared as if men were awakening in spirit from a long sleep. This reawakening gave an impetus to travel and explorations as well. In Europe, the earliest attempts at exploring new lands were made by Spain and Portugal. The incentive to such efforts was the glamour of the Far East, which they termed Cathay and Ind. In 1492, the King of Spain employed a daring Genoese sailor named Columbus to discover a passage to India and China across the Atlantic. After five weeks, Columbus sighted land and believed that he had reached India. One year after his death, one of his followers, Amerigo Vespucci by name, remarked of the land that Columbus had discovered, 'it is a new world.' This land was called after him 'America.'

Some years afterwards, a Portuguese adventurer named Vasco da Gama reached India by sea by rounding the coast of Africa. Within a few years, Spain and Portugal had captured the markets of the East and the West, and planted colonies there. England now woke up and thought that her heritage should be in the North. Many adventurous Englishmen lost their lives in the attempt to discover a north-east passage

to India. The inhospitable nature of the north and the hostility between Spain and England next turned the attention of the English sailors to the New World which was reputed to be fabulously wealthy.

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, intrepid English seamen like Drake and Hawkins poached on the preserves of the Spanish Emperor, and traded with Spain's colonies in America. Many of them were inspired by a restless love of adventure and a thirst for glory. The King of Spain denied them the right of peaceful trade with the New World, and so we find these seamen engaged in exploits which we would, at the present day, consider to be improper acts—robbing and plundering the Spanish ports and capturing Spanish ships as they were carrying gold to Spain—but all of which were thought to be proper methods of gaining for their country a share in the great wealth which Spain refused to them. They also saw in such conduct a means of harassing that country, which had at least for a few years the arrogance to claim England itself as its possession.

Drake was the boldest of these seamen. He undertook several voyages to the Spanish main, from all of which he returned home with his ships full of Spanish gold. During one of these voyages he saw, for the first time from the height of a tree in the Isthmus of Panama, the waters of the Pacific Ocean shining golden in the light of the setting sun. At that moment he decided that he would sail an English ship on that strange sea. It was a historic voyage that Drake now undertook. Getting together a small fleet

he sailed across the Atlantic to Cape Horn, braving severe storms accompanied with thunder and rain and thick fogs, which constantly scattered the small fleet. Rounding South America, he struck across the Pacific; the ocean of his dream lay before him. But in the severe gales of the Pacific Ocean, all the ships except Drake's own were destroyed. He then sailed across the Indian Ocean, round the Cape of Good Hope, and northward to the shores of England, arriving home three years after he had sailed for the west. In the course of his voyages, Drake had robbed the King of Spain of much gold; and as an answer to the Spanish King's complaints against him, Elizabeth feasted on board his vessel when it returned to port and knighted him, to the great delight of all Englishmen.

Other Englishmen went forth to explore North America, and to find another way to India round the northern end of America. One of them was Martin Frobisher, who sailed across the ice-bound waters beyond Canada. Though they did not get to India, they discovered new lands and the foundations of England's colonial empire were laid. Englishmen had become accustomed to the unchartered seas and the future destiny of England was revealed, when the great fleet called the Armada, got ready by Spain to conquer her, was defeated in the English Channel. In the 17th and the 18th centuries, England outstripped Holland and France also in the race for commercial and colonial dominion. Religious persecution in the 17th century had driven

some Englishmen to seek more congenial homes abroad. Some of them colonised the Atlantic coast of North America, and thus founded the colonies, now known as the United States. In her struggle with France for colonial supremacy, England obtained possession of Canada. The conquest of Canada was the result of the daring of an Englishman, General Wolfe.

In 1782, the English Colonies set up in North America declared themselves to be independent; but Canada continued to remain under her. Far from being diminished, the English colonial empire increased, because new areas like Australia and New Zealand came to be colonised. It was Captain Cook who added to the British Empire the vast island continent of Australia. Cook was one of the greatest sailors and explorers the world has ever seen. In 1776, he sailed into the Pacific on what turned out to be the last of his expeditions. He tried to find a passage up the straits separating Asia from America, but huge fields of ice prevented his further progress. He sailed back to the Sandwich Islands in the North Pacific which he had discovered, where he unfortunately became embroiled in a quarrel with the natives. As he turned to walk through the howling mob back to the ship, he was clubbed from behind and beaten to death.

By the close of the 18th century, England had become the foremost colonial power in the world. Robert Clive had won for Britain a new province in Bengal—which was to be the beginning of the British

Empire in India. Her navy now dominated the seas. With its help, England not only preserved her colonial possessions but also safeguarded her very existence in the anxious days when the great French Emperor Napoleon attempted to subdue her. England was then the only important country in Europe which defied him. Once again, the hour brought forth the man. Nelson, England's greatest Admiral, foiled the plans of the French Emperor from time to time. In the Battle of the Nile he defeated Napoleon's fleet, and thereby ruined his design of founding an Eastern Empire. In the Battle of Trafalgar, he destroyed the combined fleets of France and Spain, and thus effectually checkmated Napoleon's imperialistic ambitions.

In the first half of the 19th century, the colonial possessions of England were still further extended. Africa, which had till then remained a Dark Continent, attracted some daring Englishmen who undertook the work of exploring the interior of the country. The most famous of them was Livingstone, Doctor, Missionary and Explorer, who crossed the continent from east to west, a feat never before accomplished by a white man. He died of fever and exhaustion in Africa; but his faithful friends, the natives, embalmed his body and carried it with great difficulty down to the coast, from where it was sent to England. By the beginning of the 20th century, England had acquired a large part of Africa. The Boers, as the Dutch colonists of South Africa were called, were subdued and their territory was added to

the British Dominions. Another great Englishman Cecil Rhodes annexed the wide territory Rhodesia, named appropriately after him. This, however, was only a partial accomplishment of his dream of uniting as much of Africa as was possible under the British flag. The ancient land of Egypt, with the territory south of it called Sudan, also passed under the control of Britain.

Thus, by the beginning of the 20th century, a vast portion of the world, enormous in area, wealth and population, had come under the sway of England. A pride in the growth and maintenance of this Empire, and a feeling of exaltation at the achievements of the British race, are naturally felt by all Englishmen who glory in the fact that theirs is an Empire over which the sun never sets. But the British Empire is not like the oppressive, cruel Empires we read about in history. It is ruled according to benevolent principles which have been perfected by a number of English and colonial statesmen. The great benefits of modern science and organisation in the shape of large-scale irrigation and eradication of diseases have been extended everywhere. More important than all these has been the establishment of the principle that those portions of the Empire, which are fit for self-government, should be allowed to govern themselves. Thus the British Empire forms today a unique political organisation. It is a Commonwealth of Nations, the majority of which are politically free, and all of which are welded together by a common bond of goodwill.

CHAPTER V

HIS MAJESTY THE KING-EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, George V, was born at Marlborough House on June 3rd, 1865.

The seeds of that domestic attachment, for which the King-Emperor is justly reputed, must have been sown in his mind in early childhood. With his elder brother Prince Albert Victor, Prince George basked in the love of a fond father and an adoring mother. For the Princess of Wales, there was no 'children's hour;' all hours were theirs. And thus the brothers grew up, the elder with a delicate beauty and a rather dreamy look, the younger invariably dominant and assertive.

The problem of choosing a proper tutor for the two Princes began to engage the attention of the Queen-Empress Victoria when they were just seven and six respectively. The choice could not have fallen upon a worthier man than John Neale Dalton, who realised from the outset that what the prospective heir to the throne needed was education, not instruction. The search for knowledge was not confined to the musty pages of books but extended to excursions to historical sites and monuments, galleries and museums. The Tower of London and Nelson's Statue were objects of keen and constant interest to the Princes.

No part of the Princes' education, neither the physical nor the moral, escaped the vigilance of the Queen-Empress Victoria. In 1877, she drafted a memorandum expounding her views on the proper training of her grandsons. The Prince of Wales suggested that the Princes should go abroad as Naval Cadets on the "Britannia" training ship at Dartmouth. But the rough-and-tumble of life on a training ship was repugnant to the Empress who suggested Wellington College as a compromise; she was at last brought round to favour the "Britannia" plan. In May, the Princes went through a two-days examination for naval cadetship just like the sons of any commoner; and thus began the apprenticeship to a life, at first intended to be dedicated to the sea, which has earned for the King-Emperor the popular sobriquet of 'the Sailor King.'

It was in May 1879 that the Princes undertook a tour to the West Indies in Her Majesty's ship the "Bacchante." Cruising on the western Mediterranean, they gazed with awe at the Rock of Gibraltar, and proceeded to the Baleoric Isles and Sicily. Visiting the Canaries on their way, they struck across the Atlantic. Though the lonely path of the Genoese explorer had now become a regular highroad of naval traffic, the voyage must have been as much of an adventure to the Princes as it had been to Columbus.

By this time, the Princes had been promoted to the rank of midshipmen, and there is a trace of boyish pride in their references to the doings of

"we mids." The warm welcome that was extended to them and the loyalty displayed everywhere in the Indies must have greatly impressed them. Their first cruise in foreign waters came to an end in May 1880.

After spending their summer at home, the Princes started on another voyage on the "Bacchante" in September. The small fleet consisted of six ships, and was commanded by Rear-Admiral the Earl of Clan William. They visited the Canaries and then set sail for South America. But when they were in the Falklands, they received sudden orders to proceed direct to South Africa for naval service. For some time past, war clouds had been gathering, and the young Princes were filled with rapture at the prospect of active service, as it was thought that the navy would be called on to put down the Boers. But it soon became evident that the navy would not be required, and so the Fleet escorting the Princes proceeded to Australia. In Japan, they were entertained by the Mikado at Tokio, and on their way back to England they enjoyed the hospitality of the Khedive at Cairo. The Prince and the Princess of Wales boarded the "Bacchante" off St. Alban's Head, and the royal party returned to England on August 5th.

In August 1891, after thirteen years of conscientious service in the navy, Prince George was promoted to the rank of Commander. While on a visit to his elder brother, then quartered with his regiment, the Tenth Hussars, at the Curragh, he con-

tracted enteric fever. The Prince of Wales, who had just celebrated his fiftieth birthday, hastened with Prince George to London. The Princess of Wales, who was away at Livadia, rushed to the bedside of her son. It was only in December that the Prince was declared to be out of danger.

The events of the next few months were to mould Prince George's life on entirely different lines. While attending the funeral of Prince Hohenlohe, the Duke of Clarence was attacked by a vicious form of influenza. Three days later, he succumbed to it. After a few weeks of strict seclusion at Eastbourne, the Prince and the Princess of Wales retired with their daughters and surviving son to Cape Martin on the Riviera.

The passing away of the Duke of Clarence was a turning point in the inner life of Prince George. The boyish traits of his character gradually disappeared, as he began to realise the duties and responsibilities of his position as the heir-presumptive. Queen Victoria created him Duke of York, Earl of Inverness and Lord Rothesay in the Peerage of the United Kingdom—a measure which met with universal approval. The Duke of York could now be seen in the Peers' Gallery, closely following every debate of importance in the House of Lords, and taking an active interest in the study of various problems.

II

The most important question of the hour was that of the Prince's marriage. A German Princess would

not have been very welcome in England. The name of Princess Mary of Teck, who had been betrothed to the late Duke of Clarence, was on every lip, and popular imagination had built a halo round her. For a year, the Princess refused to listen to any suggestion of an engagement between herself and the playmate of her childhood. But on May 6th, 1893, the nation heard with joy the news of the engagement of the Duke of York and Princess Mary. The wedding took place at the Chapel Royal on July 6th. Thousands of spectators thronged the routes along which the Prince and the Princess drove from Buckingham Palace to Sandringham.

A fine suite in St. James' Palace, designated York House, became the home of the Duke and the Duchess of York. The next seven years were divided between Norfolk and London, punctuated by public duties and a few private entertainments. Three sons and a daughter were born to them during this period. If anything could bring comfort to the bereaved mother, the Princess of Wales, it was the deep and tender devotion of her surviving son and the smiling faces of her grand-children. She used to take the Princes out for drives in the Park. Efficient tutors and governesses were appointed for the education of the children; but no tutor or governess was able to do what the parents themselves did towards the intellectual improvement of the Princes.

The close of the century and the dawn of the next found England engaged in the protracted Boer War. On January 2nd, 1901, Empress Victoria, though

ailing, granted an interview to Lord Roberts who had just returned from South Africa, leaving Lord Kitchener in chief command. The Empress became worse after the departure of Lord Roberts. At six o'clock on January 22nd, she died.

When the Australian Commonwealth Bill was passing through Parliament, the Colonial Secretary pointed out the benefits that would accrue from the Duke and the Duchess of York opening the first Commonwealth Parliament at Melbourne. The idea was approved of by the King-Emperor Edward VII; and the Duke and the Duchess of York left England for Australia to represent the Sovereign in that colony. Escorted by a carefully selected suite, they set sail in the "Ophir."

Rain spoiled the grand reception got ready at Gibraltar. Malta, Port Said and Aden had each arranged a splendid welcome to the royal visitors. Ceylon put forth all the oriental pomp and pageantry she could display to impress the visitors. Twelve addresses were presented at Singapore. Melbourne, it is said, was almost hidden by decorations. To the cheering of 12,000 voices, the Duke of York opened the Commonwealth Parliament on May 9th. Two days later, the University of Melbourne conferred on him the Degree of LL.D., and the National Anthem and the strains of "He's a jolly good fellow" were sung by thousands of undergraduates. At Cambooya, the Duke and his party were offered true Bush hospitality in the form of a 'billy tea' with the real Bush-made 'damper.' There is a picture of the Duchess presiding at this

tea-party. She is seated on a kerosene can, and the Duke is rather precariously perched on an overturned log.

On May 27th, the "Ophir" reached Sydney and anchored in the finest harbour in the world. The University of the place conferred another LL. D., on the Duke; and undergraduate enthusiasm found expression in an ingenuous song to the tune of "A Life on the Ocean Wave."

" But when he at last appears,
The welkin we shall arouse,
By giving the Jook three cheers,
And three for his charming spouse ;
And every undergrad
With a throat to call his own,
Will not overlook the Dad
Who is minding the Kids at home."

The Duke of York then proceeded from Australia to New Zealand. At Auckland the party were greeted by the octogenarian, Dr. Campbell. After announcing the incorporation of the Cook Islands in New Zealand, the Duke passed on to visit the Maoris who, with due ritual, lamented the death of the Great White Queen, 'Wikitoria.'

Leaving New Zealand on July 26th, the "Ophir" set sail for South Africa. On his arrival at Maritzburg, the Duke was welcomed by Lord Kitchener and he pinned Victoria Crosses on the breasts of the heroes of the Boer War. A deputation of Boer prisoners next presented to him an address as well as some specimens of their workmanship. As early as this period, the Duke must have visualised a South Africa, not split up

into different nationalities, but with her discordant interests harmonised into a perfect nation. This ideal was realised when in 1914 the Transvaal patriots nobly responded to the call of the King, and took up arms in defence of the Empire.

The next country to be visited by the Duke of York was Canada. He reached Quebec on September 16th. The French and the English colonists of Canada vied with each other in welcoming the royal visitors. After opening the new University buildings at Winnipeg, the Duke proceeded to Vancouver. Then followed the visit to Bauff, the health resort of the Rockies, duck-shooting at Manitoba, and a review at Toronto. The party then came back to Halifax to witness the naval and military demonstrations there.

Leaving St. John's, Newfoundland, on October 25th, the "Ophir" experienced rough weather in the Atlantic and finally reached Portsmouth on November 1st, thus terminating a trip which was as exciting as it was educative.

London welcomed back the Duke and the Duchess of York with the time-honoured Guildhall dinner. Many distinguished orators spoke on the occasion, prominent among them being the Lord Mayor, Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Salisbury and Lord Rosebery. But their speeches were all eclipsed by that of the Duke himself. In fact, this speech established his reputation as an eloquent public speaker.

On his return from Canada, the Prince was installed as Prince of Wales at Marlborough House. In 1905, he was made Lord Warden of the Cinque

Ports. in succession to Lord Curzon. The same year he visited Wales and Canada.

III

The Prince and the Princess of Wales had for long been anxious to visit India and this desire was approved of by the King-Emperor. On November 9th, 1905, the party landed at Bombay where they were accorded a royal reception.

A visit to Ajmere had to be cancelled owing to plague and famine breaking out in that area. At Indore, the party was received by the young Holkar and the Begum of Bhopal. Fifty-three Chiefs of Central India tendered their homage to their Sovereign's son. The Maharana of Udaipur showed himself a splendid host. After a visit to the picturesque city of Jaipur, the Prince reviewed the celebrated Camel Corps of the Maharaja of Bikaner and the famous Patiala Cavalry at Lahore. When the royal visitors reached Peshawar, the hillmen, turbanned, bearded and baggy-breeched, salaamed to the Prince. At Rawalpindi, 55,000 men, distributed and divided into brigades according to the Commander-in-Chief's new scheme, paraded before the Prince and the Princess. The decorations at Amritsar bore legends which could be epitomised thus: "Tell your parents we are happy." After visiting Delhi and Agra, the party proceeded to Gwalior where they spent their Christmas. The Princess presided over a Christmas Tree.

When they had seen Calcutta, the Royal visitors left India proper and proceeded to Rangoon; and

thence to Mandalay, the "Venice of the East." The Princess was deeply impressed by the curious mingling which she found there of the rival cultures of Hindustan and China. The 380-miles railway journey was interesting in that it illustrated a characteristic feature of Indian railways. The Royal Special was scheduled to take 19 hours to cover 380 miles. "Nineteen hours for 380 miles!", exclaimed the Prince, "No, no, you must cut the time down by at least half. We are used to fifty miles an hour in England." No sooner was the desire expressed than it was carried out. Devoted drivers sweated in the engine to drive the special train to Mandalay ten hours ahead of schedule!

Madras was reached on January 18th. After visiting Mysore and Hyderabad, the royal party arrived at Benares a month later. The Princess, thence, made an excursion to Mussorie and Dehra Dun, while the Prince went back to Gwalior on another hunting expedition. The spread of cholera in the camp again prevented the Prince from enjoying at Terai a few days' pleasant shooting which had been arranged with great care by the Maharaja of Nepal. Rejoining the Princess at Aligarh, where a School of Science was opened, the Prince attended the last of the Durbars at Quetta in commemoration of his visit. The party set sail for home from Karachi on March 17th.

The visit to India opened the eyes of the future monarch to the splendour and the glories of the ancient civilization of the land over which he was to rule one day. Everywhere, Oriental pomp mingled

with true-hearted loyalty and devotion to do honour to the prospective sovereign and his consort. The hearty good-will so royally earned during the tour of 1905-6 paved the way for the triumphal and almost Caesarian procession of 1911-12.

India had deeply impressed the Royal visitors. The Prince spoke at Guildhall on his return to London: "I cannot help thinking, from all I have heard and seen, that the task of governing India will be made the easier if we, on our part, infuse into it a wider element of sympathy. I will venture to predict that to such sympathy there will be an ever-abundant and genuine response. May we not hope also for a still fuller measure of trust and confidence in our earnest desire and efforts to promote the well-being and further the best interests of every class?" It is needless to say that these sentiments found a ready response in the hearts of the loyal millions of India.

IV

Towards the end of April, 1910, the King-Emperor Edward VII contracted a bad cold. His illness became worse and he died on May 6th, 1910. The funeral took place on May 20th, at which were present all the important European monarchs. The King-Emperor George V and the Queen-Empress Mary observed mourning rigorously for a whole year.

The first State Ceremony performed by His Majesty was the opening in February 1911 of a Parliament which was destined to sit for seven years, to witness some epoch-making political changes abroad,

and finally to be dissolved in 1918 when a new world was being shaped from the wrecks of the old.

June 22nd was the Coronation Day. In honour of the occasion, 550 men of distinction were awarded peerages, baronetcies, knighthoods and other titles. A congregation of 8000 people gathered to witness Their Majesties in their ceremonial robes walk up to the Chairs of State on the side of the altar to be presented by the Archbishop of Canterbury for the Recognition.

The oath over, the power of the Holy Spirit was invoked in the *Veni Creator*. The Emperor was divested of his Robes of State, and his breast, head and hands were anointed by the Primate. Then he was clothed with the kingly insignia, ecclesiastical and civil. After the Empress had been anointed and had made her obeisance, as the first subject of the Empire, to the King-Emperor, the Holy Sacrament was administered in solemn silence. A great ruler had ascended the throne of a great Empire.

The coronation ceremonies of His Majesty can be said to have reached their culmination only with the Dürbar in Delhi. Prince Arthur of Connaught, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor and the Lord President of the Council were appointed Counsellors of State in the King's absence, and Their Majesties set sail for India on 11th November, 1911, in the "Medina."

The voyage to India was an experience even to Their Majesties, who had performed it before. Very rough weather prevailed till they reached Gibraltar ;:

but it cleared up when they entered the Mediterranean. At Port Said, the Khedive paid his respects to the King and Queen. The Camel Corps and the Bedouin Cavalry guarded the passage of the illustrious guests along the Suez Canal; and from Aden, the first outpost of India, thundered out for the first time the 101 gun-salute reserved for the Emperor of India. With another imperial salute, the Viceroy and the Governor of Bombay welcomed the royal guests at Bombay on December 2nd.

After accepting the address of the Bombay Municipal Corporation and attending numerous public functions, Their Majesties started on the 900-miles journey to Delhi. Here, they were welcomed by Lord and Lady Hardinge. And here for the first time the Maharaja of Udaipur attended upon the Emperor as the Ruling-Chief-in-Waiting. The Nizam, the Gaekwar and the Maharajas of Mysore and Kashmir paid their homage, and thence the stately procession moved on to the Imperial Camp which covered a space of 25 miles. The days and evenings preceding the Durbar were fully taken up with receptions of the Ruling Chiefs, visits and reviews.

The Durbar was held in the large amphitheatre erected three miles away from the Royal Camp. The semicircular stand was packed thick with 10,000 spectators; and in the centre of the arena was raised the Royal Dais where Their Majesties came for the reading of the Proclamation reciting the Coronation at Westminster. 20,000 troops filled the arena and

50,000 Indians heard, from a mound outside, the Proclamation read in English and Urdu.

The festivals and splendours of Rome under the Caesars would have paled into insignificance beside the grandeur of the Delhi Durbar. Procession after procession, displaying a riot of colour and beauty, passed by, paying homage to the Emperor and Empress of India. The crowning moment arrived when the Emperor announced that the capital of India was to be shifted from Calcutta to Delhi. A Governorship was created for the Presidency of Bengal; Behar; Chota Nagpur and Orissa were to be placed under Lieutenant-Governors, and Assam under a Commissioner.

The Durbar was followed by a great religious ceremony where Hindus, Jains, Muslims and Sikhs offered their whole-hearted thanks to the Almighty for inaugurating an era of peace in India; and when Their Majesties appeared on Shah Jahan's balcony, they were greeted by a jubilant multitude gathered below.

On December 14th, a huge body of 40,000 troops, British and Indian, horse, foot and guns, paraded before Their Majesties. That evening the Empress knelt before the Emperor as the first candidate for the investiture of the Star of India. After laying the Foundation Stone of the new capital city of Delhi, and accepting the farewell obeisance of the great Chiefs, the Emperor and the Empress left Delhi.

The Queen-Empress enjoyed some sight-seeing at Agra and the King-Emperor had ten days' big game

hunting in Nepal. Reuniting at Bankipur, Their Majesties proceeded to Calcutta where they witnessed a magnificent pageant representing the past history of India. Coming back to Bombay, the Royal Party set out in the "Medina" on January 10th, on their return voyage. Breaking their journey at Port Said, where Lord Kitchener paid his respects to his Sovereign, and at Malta, where they attended an imposing review, Their Majesties returned to England.

V

When on June 28th, 1914, two Slavs murdered the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria and his Consort in the streets of Serajevo, a small town in Serbia, no one realised that it would provoke the greatest catastrophe in the history of the world. Serajevo, from being a geographical curiosity, was to assume sinister importance, shatter the fabric of the world, and send the nations of the earth into factories, funk-holes and trenches for the next four years. "The lamps are going out all over Europe," said Sir Edward Grey, "we shall not see them lit again in our life-time."

Austria rejected Serbia's reply to an ultimatum demanding satisfaction for the murder of the Archduke. Germany, which had been long preparing for war, found here the opportunity it had been waiting for. On July 28th, Austria declared war on Serbia. Germany joined the former, and Russia and France allied themselves with the latter. "I verily believe," wrote M. Poincare, the French President,

to King George "that the best chance of peace depends on what the British Government now says and does." Even at the eleventh hour, the Emperor sent the olive branch to the Kaiser. "I cannot help thinking," ran His Majesty's telegram, "that some misunderstanding has produced this deadlock. I am most anxious not to miss any possibility of avoiding the terrible calamity, which at present threatens the whole world. I, therefore, make a personal appeal to you to remove the misapprehension (as to Russian mobilisation) which I feel must have occurred, and to leave still open grounds for negotiation and possible peace. If you think that I can in any way contribute to that all important purpose, I will do everything in my power to assist in re-opening the interrupted conversations between the powers concerned. I feel confident that you are as anxious as I am that all that is possible should be done to secure the peace of the world." The dove of peace was returned cooked.

On August 2nd, Germany demanded of Belgium a free passage for her troops to attack France. The next day, His Majesty received a message from King Albert of Belgium. "Mindful of the numerous marks of friendship of Your Majesty and of Your Majesty's predecessors," ran the telegram, "as well as the friendly attitude of Great Britain in 1870, and of the proofs of sympathy which she has once again shown us, I make the supreme appeal to the diplomatic intervention of Your Majesty's Government to safeguard the neutrality of Belgium." Sir Edward Grey telegraphed to the German Government for a

categorical undertaking to respect Belgian neutrality and demanding an answer by midnight of August 4th. No reply came, and England at once declared war on Germany in the cause of Freedom and International Justice.

England rose to the call of honour as she had always done. For over four years, the Titanic struggle raged, sucking the whole world into the whirlpool of destruction. India and the colonies rallied round the British standard. The end of the conflict saw the European monarchies tumble down like a pack of cards—all except the monarchy of England, which the war established, if possible, on a safer and surer foundation.

Throughout the terrible years of the war, the Royal Family set an example to the whole nation by their spirit of self-sacrifice. The Prince of Wales served in France, the Duke of York took part in the Battle of Jutland, and the King himself paid repeated visits to his troops in France and Belgium. One can imagine the feelings of His Majesty when he saw the first batch of the wounded arrive in England. With a 'bedside manner' which even a trained physician might envy, the Emperor walked through the hospitals; and with infinite sympathy he distributed gifts and spoke words, which acted as a tonic on the men who had sacrificed everything for a great cause.

On October 28th, 1915, His Majesty had an ugly accident. In the company of the French President, he had been reviewing some of his troops at Havre.

As he was riding out of a field, a group of the Air Force flew towards him with loud cheers, which caused his horse to rear and fall back on him, causing injuries, which, it was feared, were serious. The Prince of Wales, who was accompanying him, hurried back to England to give Her Majesty the details of the accident. Though the Emperor crossed the Channel four days later, several weeks elapsed before he wholly recovered.

On 11th November, 1918, the "Cease Fire" was sounded. A few days later, His Majesty set out with two of his sons on a fortnight's tour to the battle-fields of France and Belgium. No ruler had ever been more warmly welcomed in a foreign capital than the King-Emperor was in Paris. Returning to England, he received with every mark of honour Field-Marshal Haig and his Army Commanders on their entry into London. The year closed with a State Banquet at Buckingham Palace in honour of President Wilson of the United States.

On June 29th, 1919, the Peace Treaty of Versailles was signed. Their Majesties appeared on the balcony of the Palace as soon as the news reached England. The ovation that they received from the crowd below was such as any monarch might be proud of. Hardly less enthusiastic were the crowds that mustered to witness the great Victory Procession on July 19th; and there was not a single man who was not moved to the depths of his heart when clear above the multitude's shout rang the Emperor's words: "To the sick and the wounded who cannot

take part in the festival of victory, I send greetings and bid them be of good cheer, assuring them that the wounds and scars, so honourable to themselves, inspire in the hearts of their fellow-countrymen the warmest feelings of gratitude and respect."

VI

Family responsibilities also came in for a great share of the Emperor's attention in 1924. Empress Victoria had scrupulously observed the principle that, as far as possible, members of the Royal Family should not contract any alliance with the nobility of the land. But His Majesty gave his 'consent in Council' to three such alliances in 1924, two of them with the sons of his father's friends, Lord Harewood, and Lord Southesk and the third, with the daughter of Lord Strathmore.

In November, 1925, the Emperor suffered a great domestic calamity. Without pain or anxiety, Empress Alexandra, who had been called the Queen of Beauty, passed away. "What was a real grief for the country was a true sorrow for the King, but in that sorrow there can be no stab of self-reproach, for, if son never had a more devoted mother, surely no mother ever had a more loyal and loving son."

In the November of 1928, the nation was plunged in grave anxiety when it was known that the King-Emperor was seriously ill on account of a chill caught in Sandringham. "For eight long winter weeks, the King of England lay locked in struggle with the King of Terrors himself." The Prince of Wales was at

this time visiting East Africa. When the news of His Majesty's illness reached him, he rushed back to England as fast as he could travel. After an eighteen-hours railway journey to the coast, he embarked in the cruiser "Enterprise." The 1750-miles voyage to Aden was completed in the remarkably short time of 73½ hours. The Prince then took the train to Brindisi and his journey across Europe broke all records. He arrived home on December 11th. The solicitude of the nation for their beloved ruler's health was revealed by the huge crowds that gathered at the Palace Gates, hungering for the latest bulletin; and all the nations of the Empire heaved a sigh of relief and offered thanks to the Almighty when they learnt that at last their beloved Sovereign was out of danger. His Majesty spent some months at Bognor recovering from his illness, and this town has been called Bognor Regis ever since. The great Thanks-Offering Fund inaugurated by a gift of £100,000 from a gentleman who modestly preferred to remain under the pseudonym of Andax, is an eloquent token and practical expression of the solicitude of the people for the welfare of their King.

The domestic happiness of the Emperor became complete when recently, in February 1935, his youngest son, the Duke of Kent, espoused Princess Marina of Greece. The years that have gone by have showered honours on the head of one who has ever stood firm at his post of duty, ruling a great Empire.

H. R. H. THE PRINCE OF WALES

His Royal Highness Edward, Prince of Wales, was born on June 23, 1894, at White Lodge, Richmond. He was christened Edward Albert Christian George Andrew Patrick David. The Prince was a particular favourite of his grand-parents, and he used to discuss seriously with King Edward whether he should become an engine-driver or a policeman !

When the child came to be of the right age, he was admitted into the Osbourne Naval College to be trained for the Navy. At the express wish of the Royal Family, he was treated just like a Commoner's son at College. In fact, he once picked a quarrel with another boy, because the latter had 'royal-highnessed' him. When he left Osbourne, he had a thorough knowledge of engineering, mechanics and navigation, and from there he proceeded to Dartmouth to complete his naval education.

July 13th, 1911, was a great day in the life of the Prince, for, on that day, he was invested as the Prince of Wales at Carnarvon. The last investiture ceremony of a Prince of Wales had taken place many centuries ago, so that no one was conversant with the correct procedure. An old manuscript, however, was ferretted out from the archives ; and it was found to contain a description of the ceremony, which was second only to the Coronation in its riot of colour and magnificence. The Prince was

conducted in procession to the Chamberlain's Tower by Mr. Lloyd George, Controller of the Castle. Between the Black Tower and the Granary Tower, three thrones had been set up. The Prince walked up to the royal platform, and making obeisance with boyish grace, knelt at his father's feet to be invested with the Mantle, Sword, Coronet, Ring and Rod. When he had repeated the formula of homage to the King, he was kissed on both cheeks by the Sovereign and bidden to occupy the third throne. On this occasion he won the affections of the Welsh people by speaking a few sentences in Welsh. He was presented to the people on the same historic spot where, centuries ago, the first Prince of Wales had been presented to the Welsh burghers by King Edward I.

In October, 1912, the Prince of Wales went up to Magdalen College, Oxford. Here, as at Osbourne, he was treated exactly like any commoner's son. He specialised in Geography, History, Politics, Economics, French and German. He also became proficient in rowing, golf and soccer.

He would have continued for another year at Oxford but for the outbreak of the Great War. He was eager to go to the front, but Lord Kitchener opposed the scheme. At last the Prince won his point to the extent that he was allowed to act as a Despatch-rider between the various corps headquarters and the General Headquarters. When acting as a liaison officer, he used to make his way to the trenches and mix freely with the men over

there. His war activities also took him to Egypt in March 1916 and to the Italian Front. He felt greatly gratified by a 'mention' in the 'Journal Official' of the French Army.

The Prince has visited Canada a number of times. During his first visit to that Dominion in 1919, Mr. MacKenzie King, the Leader of the Opposition, called him 'the Sir Galahad of the Royal House, our future King.' He purchased a big ranch, 4000 acres in area, among the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains. His second visit in 1923 was an informal one, and he travelled incognito. He fulfilled no official engagements, but proceeded straight to his ranch, and had a quiet holiday inspecting his sheep, cattle and horses. In 1927, he attended the opening of the new Buffalo Bridge—a structure commemorating a century of peace between Canada and her neighbour, the United States of America.

Immediately after his first visit to Canada, he crossed over to the United States and was received by Mr. Lansing, the Secretary of State, President Wilson being ill. The States' welcome to the Prince was so demonstrative that he was forced to remark: "They 'princled' me so much, every moment I expected to start to bark." His next visit to the States was purely informal; he went to witness the International Polo Match between Britain and America.

In 1925, the Prince of Wales proceeded to South America for the first time. After inspecting the cattle ranches there, he crossed the Andes to Chile,

and visited its President at Santiago. During his return from Chile, he was held up for a week, on the top of the mountains by a twenty-foot snow-drift. This visit endeared him to the South American people, and promoted trade relations between England and South America. In 1931, he again visited that continent to open the British Empire Trade Exhibition at Buenos Aires. The trip embraced Bermuda, Jamaica, Panama, Havana, Bolivia, Peru, Chile and the Argentine.

In 1920, he visited Australia and New Zealand. This was but a modest curtain-raiser to the world tour which he began in 1921. Starting from home in the "Renown," he reached Bombay on November 17th, where he was received by Lord Reading, the Viceroy. He remained in India for four months, during which period he visited all important cities and places of interest. From Bombay he proceeded to Baroda, where the Gaekwar accorded him a royal reception. At Udaipur, 'the city of fairy lakes', he was greeted by State Officials carrying guns made of gold. He next proceeded to Bikaner, where he inspected the famous Bikaner Camel Corps. After visiting Lucknow, Jodhpur, Patna, Burma, Madras and other places, he reached the capital of India, where he stayed for a week. Here he unveiled the All-India King Edward VII Memorial. After a visit to the Khyber Pass, he left the Indian shore on board the "Renown" bound for Japan. He returned to England on June 20th, 1922, after an absence of eight months.

In March, 1925, he set out for West and South Africa. All the tribes of West Africa turned up to do him honour, each in its own particular way. At Cape Town he attended reviews of ex-service men, and won the affections of the South African nationalists by speaking a sentence in Afrikaans at a banquet given in his honour. "I feel," said the Prince, "that the people of this country already regard me as a South African. I intend to come back at all costs."

In 1928, the Prince, accompanied by the Duke of Gloucester, proceeded to East Africa on an informal visit for big game hunting. He was busy shooting lions and elephants, when he heard that his Royal father was seriously ill. At once he rushed back to England, literally on the wings of the wind. He was, however, to come back to Africa in 1930 to resume his big game hunting.

It may be said without exaggeration that there is scarcely a single country on the face of the globe which the Prince has not personally visited, or with which he has not some associations. In fact, he is the 'most travelled Prince in all history.'

The intervals between his travels were taken up by public duties at home. In 1922, he received the Freedom of St. Andrews, and the University conferred an LL. D. Degree on him. During these years he interested himself in education. The Prince is also a born sportsman. Horses are his passion. But the number of falls he sustained from horses made the nation anxious, and in 1928, he gave up steeple-

chasing. In civil aviation too, the Prince is abreast of the times. He is not only the owner of a private plane, but an officer in the Royal Air Force. In 1930 he was promoted to the rank of Air Marshal.

By delivering the Presidential Address to the British Association in the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford in August 1926, he established his reputation as a public speaker. It was perhaps the most critical audience he had ever faced, but he successfully passed the ordeal.

The Prince takes great interest in the activities of the rising generation, especially, in the Boy Scouts Movement. He evinces also a genuine enthusiasm in housing and agriculture, and during the last few years has been making a special study of the problem of unemployment. The cause of the ex-servicemen in particular makes a strong appeal to him.

No other Prince of England has so fired the imagination of the nations of the Empire as has this Royal Ambassador.

CHAPTER VI

IN FREEDOM'S CAUSE

Throughout the 19th century, there was growing among the people of Europe a spirit of arrogant nationalism. There was mutual fear and jealousy between one nation and another; and secretly all the great powers of Europe were strengthening their armies and navies. Militarism increased to such an extent that a great war became inevitable. The assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria at Serajevo, a small town in Serbia, on June 28th, 1914, was the accidental cause of the devastating war that followed. Austria declared war on Serbia, and Russia and France joined the latter, while Germany ranged herself on the side of the former.

Coming just when it did, this sudden conflagration caught all the nations of Europe off their guard—all except Germany. The German people had been secretly arming themselves for a grim conflict years before the Archduke's assassination. England was at first unable even to comprehend the cause and the measure of the danger that threatened her. She fondly imagined that the petty conspiracy in Serbia did not concern her, and that she would not have to fight about it.

But, disregarding all extant treaties and England's warnings, the German army entered Belgium, since

through that land lay their easiest route to France. The German Chancellor could not even understand England's attitude in the matter; he burst out in indignation to the English representative: "Good God, man, do you say that your country will go to war for a scrap of paper?" But England felt that Germany was trampling not merely on a weak nation but on the cause of freedom itself. It was with an awful sense of its responsibility to the whole of mankind that Great Britain declared war on Germany on August 4th, 1914.

On that day, the London populace thronged and paraded the streets, waving Union Jacks. A vast crowd assembled before the Buckingham Palace. As His Majesty appeared in the balcony with the Queen, the Prince of Wales and Princess Mary, he was greeted with tumultuous cheering and the singing of the National Anthem. There was a tremendous rush at the offices which recruited soldiers for the war, and men stood in queues for long hours without food or drink, waiting for enlistment. There was at once a magnificent response from all parts of the British Empire, including India. For the first time in the history of the world, able-bodied men from all parts of the British Empire were, of their own free will, fighting side by side.

The war raged for over four years. Britain, France, Italy, Japan, the United States, Russia and Belgium were allied and fighting on one side; Germany, Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria were on the other. The Germans overran nearly all Belgium and

advanced towards Paris ; but the French and English soldiers held the Germans at bay with indomitable valour. Both the armies thereafter dug miles of deep trenches, and settled down to fight from within them. Land warfare thus became converted into a thing hitherto unknown in history—warfare conducted by opposing armies, hid from each other in trenches which stretched from the English Channel to the mountains of Switzerland. The soldiers endured every kind of misery. The land soon became a dreary waste of mud-holes and water. Roads were wrecked into quagmires ; the rains poured in torrents ; and everywhere the soldiers had to wade or watch ankle-deep in mud. The nights were bitterly cold and made hideous by the whine of the high explosives, the shrieks of wounded men, and the horrible screams of horses disembowelled by shell fragments. At times, as the fight was going on, the contending forces charged over heaps of the dead and the dying, tearing with bleeding hands at the barbed wire-entanglements, which stretched between the opposed trenches.

Nor was this all. Science was applied to warfare, so as to devise weapons and processes more deadly than any known before. On April 22nd, 1915 in the uncertain light of dawn, a gentle, easterly spring breeze was blowing at Ypres. A mist was presently seen rolling on the breeze from the German lines to the allied trenches. It was chlorine gas, and some six thousand soldiers were killed on the spot. This drove the allies to use 'poison gas' in their turn.

On September 15th, 1916, another curious and dreadful development followed. There emerged a huge machine from the British lines and made its way towards the German camp. It climbed over trenches, tore through wire nets, and, in its progress, squashed the squirming masses of defenders. This was a British invention called the 'Tank,' which was a huge machine, armoured with steel and filled with men using machine guns and driven by a motor engine. German reprisals followed. But, through all these horrors, the British soldier preserved not only his courage but his gaiety. Numerous unknown heroes distinguished themselves during the war by acts of the highest gallantry. It is in memory of these that the Tomb of the Unknown Warrior has been erected.

While the soldiers on the front were suffering these privations, the people at home also endured extreme suffering of another kind. In the windows of numerous houses appeared the familiar card "A man has gone from this house to fight for the King and the Country." There was universal mourning, for everybody had lost some relative or other. Many country-houses were turned into private hospitals or quarters for the soldiers. Owing to the shortage of men, women were employed by hundreds in offices and factories, while many others acted as nurses. It was a familiar sight to see women driving vans and lorries, preparing munitions and even ploughing fields.

A new menace came when the German air-craft began to bomb London and the defenceless towns on the eastern coasts of Britain. These air raids led to

stringent lighting restrictions, since the German airships came on dark nights and were guided by the lights below. Even the streets of big cities were kept unlighted. The prices of all articles increased enormously. In November 1918, the price of food compared to the price in 1914, had risen by 133%, so that the Government had to appoint a Food Controller to see that the food supply in the country was properly rationed amongst all the people. In spite of all these difficulties and restrictions, the people never murmured, and the general motto was "Business as usual."

Even at the beginning of the War, the British navy had proved its superiority by destroying the German fleet, commanded by Admiral von Spee, off the Falkland Islands. But, the Germans tried to cut off British trade by using ships called Submarines, which cruised under water, and emerging suddenly near merchant ships, blew up their bottom with missiles called torpedoes. Thus, a great ship called the "Lusitania" was sunk and 1,100 people including 291 women and 24 children were drowned. But even these inhuman tactics did not break the spirit of the British. At last the effective blockade kept up by the British fleet starved out the Germans.

The end came with breathless rapidity. All the allies of Germany dropped out of the war. Finally, on November 11th, 1918, Germany herself was compelled to sign an armistice, by which fighting was suspended on both sides. When this news reached England, "all London went mad for a day

or two. From out of every office and every home, the inmates came pouring into the streets. None could stay indoors. Work was impossible. The streets were filled with masses of people—hatless, coatless, walking arm in arm, laughing, shouting, crazy with relief from years of physical fear and of gnawing anxiety." Three quarter million young Britons had died of wounds or disease, and about a million more had been disabled by the war.

Throughout this dark time, the Royal Family became models of patriotism to the whole Empire. It is said that, when food was being rationed, King George himself set an example of extreme frugality. The American Ambassador, describing in one of his letters a dinner at Windsor Castle, says that each guest was served only with some bread and one egg apiece. No wine was supplied, but only lemonade.

The Great War brought out the inherent solidarity of the British Empire. As soon as war was declared, all the colonies and dependencies rallied round the mother country. Volunteers from every part of the Empire trooped to the battlefields.

The Indian troops entered the field of war at the very outset. They were not accustomed to this kind of trench warfare, and the European climate put them to a severe test. But our soldiers fought valiantly side by side with the rest of the Imperial army, and won praise on all occasions for the efficient manner in which they performed the part allotted to them. This came as a great surprise to the Germans. The prowess of the Gurkha regiments in capturing

trenches, the accuracy of Sikh marksmanship, the fighting capacity of all the races of India and, above all, their discipline and self-restraint, came as a revelation to friend and foe alike. Many of our soldiers won the Victoria Cross, the highest reward for valour on the battlefield. The Indian public and the Indian Princes willingly came forward with large donations to the War Fund.

The stupendous catastrophe of the World War opened the eyes of the people to the evils of militarism. There was a wide-spread desire that measures should be devised to prevent the recurrence of such a horror. So, in 1920, was set up the League of Nations. It is an International Association which aims at preventing war and working for progress in civilized life through co-operation.

The chief executive body of the League Council consists of the representatives of most of the powers, and those of some of the smaller States. The Council meets three or four times in the year. In many instances, it has succeeded in settling amicably serious differences between nations. Once a year, an Assembly, containing representatives of all the States which are members of the League, meets to consider the work to be done by the Council.

A separate section of the League is the International Labour Organisation. This consists of representatives of the Government, the Labour organisations and Employers' Associations from each of the States; and the object of this body is to improve the conditions under which industry and agriculture

are carried on. A third section is the Permanent Court of International Justice, which tries cases in dispute between States.

From the beginning, Britain has been a loyal and leading member of the League, and has used her influence for the promotion of world peace. Her participation in the League is only one of many instances revealing her steadfast optimism about the future of mankind. She refuses to take refuge in the cynicism that has unfortunately been the aftermath of the Great War. She is still 'nursing the unconquerable hope' that "the present century will outgrow the catastrophe that marred its earlier years, and that Britons will add to the many triumphs that are told in picture, song and story of the greatest empire in the world, over which King George V reigns with the dignity and wisdom of a great ruler."

CHAPTER VII

AN ERA OF PROGRESS

The inventions of the 19th century seemed to make the world grow smaller. In our own age, the 'shrinkage' continues. Motor cars, air-transport and the wireless have practically annihilated distances.

In 1884, Gottlieb Daimler invented the petrol engine. It took several years before this invention could be improved and brought to its present state of perfection. Now motor cars flash through all parts of the country in large numbers, and with a rapidity undreamt-of before. The wide, smooth and dustless British roads form one of the marvels of the world.

The story of the advance that electricity has made in recent years is still more wonderful. The inventions of Michael Faraday, a poor blacksmith's son, have made it possible to use electricity not only for driving machinery in factories, but also for countless domestic purposes. The electric telegraph enables us to communicate rapidly with distant places. Electric trains called 'Tubes' run underground from early morning till midnight in the city of London.

A great Englishman, Lord Kelvin, originated the idea of the electric cable, which runs through the waters of the sea, and transmits messages rapidly from continent to continent. But the marvels of electricity did not end here. Marconi invented in 1899 the process of conveying signals across long

distances without the use of wires. This is a subtler way of overcoming distance, and is called Wireless Telegraphy; in 1903, King Edward VII and President Theodore Roosevelt of the United States exchanged greetings over the Wireless. This great discovery enables ships to communicate with one another on the ocean, and to call for help when in distress. It is sometimes used as well in the detection of crime.

The principles of Wireless Telephony have been applied in recent years to the broadcasting of music. Each family, for a small outlay, can now furnish itself with an apparatus and listen-in to music from different stations in the world, from morning to midnight. The wireless also supplies us with the latest news from all parts of the world, and brings the inhabitants of the remotest villages into contact with the outside world.

A still greater wonder is the Television apparatus, by means of which a speaker or singer, many miles away, can be seen as well as heard. Inventions like these have greatly increased the possibilities of entertainment open to humanity. The first Cinema was opened in 1904. In those days there was only the silent picture, the 'Movie'. But now, the audience in a picture-house not only see the picture but hear the actors talking and singing. The 'movie' has now developed into a 'talkie'.

The 20th century has witnessed also man's conquest of the air. Men had been trying to fly from very early times; but the first dirigible airship was built by Count Zeppelin in 1900. It was the Great War

that brought this form of transport to very near perfection. Men and women can now be seen going on joyrides in aeroplanes. In 1930, a British woman, Miss Amy Johnson, flew from England to Australia in record time. Aeroplanes have now ceased to be scientific toys; they perform very useful services. Speeding over the world on the wings of the wind, they carry mail, freight and passengers.

In 1926, Sir Alan Cobham flew to Cape Town and back across the unknown and impenetrable forests of Central Africa. Next, he took a seaplane round Africa, photographing and mapping the coast line from the air. During the journey, one of his party was taken ill. A wireless message was sent for a doctor, and one who was living three hundred miles away flew to the spot in four hours, and was able to save the patient's life. Two years earlier, that four hours' journey would have taken four weeks!

The twentieth century has also witnessed rapid and far-reaching developments in commerce and manufacture. Industry has been 'rationalised', that is, scientifically organised. Large businesses have been built up by amalgamation of a number of competing business firms. The Imperial Chemical Industries, Limited, is an amalgamation of many British firms manufacturing chemicals. The Lever Brothers, Limited, is another combination of over 230 companies, and employs over 85,000 people.

Side by side with this material progress, there has been a consistent and steady advance in social and political conditions. In 1919, Lady Astor was

elected the first woman Member of Parliament. The first Labour Government was formed in 1924. The Reform Act of 1928 granted universal adult suffrage to men as well as women, and made the British Parliament completely democratic. A year later, Miss Margaret Bondfield, a young lady of fiery energy, who had already made for herself a mark in the political life of the country, was given a seat in the Cabinet as the Minister of Labour.

Several beneficial laws were passed by Parliament to improve the condition of the working classes. The rapid advance of the industrial revolution had been followed by conditions of squalor and misery in the industrial towns. The labourers had not been properly safeguarded against hard conditions of work and the oppression of their employers. As in other things, England was a pioneer in Labour Legislation and set an example to other countries. During the last hundred years, her working classes have come to enjoy a high degree of protection as a result of various laws passed from the time of Queen Victoria to the present day, and their conditions of life have been much improved. The modern age has also seen the steady growth of Trade Unions, which are associations formed by workers to improve their status. The Trade Unions of England have served as models for industrial workers in other lands.

In former days, the prisons were horrible dens in which all prisoners, old and young, hardened criminals and youthful offenders, were huddled together. Epidemics like Jail Fever swept through

these narrow underground cells, which let in no light or air. The movement to reform prisons began with the labours of the great Englishman, John Howard. Nowadays, the criminal is not regarded as a sinner to be punished; rather, he is an unfortunate member of society who should be reformed and made a useful citizen. Young criminals are separately placed in schools called Borstals, where they will not be hardened in crime by association with professional thieves and murderers. They are educated and given a fresh start in life. Here, too, England has led the rest of the world.

The same progress is seen in medicine. The old ill-equipped and ill-kept hospitals were thoroughly reformed in the 19th century, as a result of the zealous efforts of great English physicians like Lord Lister. A noble English woman, Miss Florence Nightingale, laid the foundations of modern scientific nursing.

The few decades of the 20th century which we have passed already, have witnessed phenomenal advancement in all matters contributing to human comfort and enjoyment. We may justly remark that the four years of the Great War alone saw the scientific progress of a century; and the marvellous achievements in science accomplished so far indicate to us only too plainly that many more secrets of Nature have yet to be unravelled.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MOTHER OF NATIONS

Britain rules over the largest Empire in the world. The British Empire extends over a quarter of the globe, and contains about a third of the world's population. Many of her countries are inhabited largely by white men. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and the Irish Free State are self-governing units of the Empire and are called Dominions. They also (except the Irish Free State, which was formed in 1922) signed the treaty of peace with Germany at Versailles, and they are all members in their own right of the League of Nations. It has now been fully recognised that these Dominions are free and equal partners of Britain in the British Commonwealth of Nations, which is the official name of the Empire. In the other parts of the Empire, which are either Protectorates or Dependencies, the British Government exercises an effective control over the administration, but granting to them from time to time representative institutions, adapted to their needs and abilities. Of the Dependencies, India is the biggest.

Within the empire, we find the utmost diversity of race, religion, culture and customs. Canada, which is as large as Europe, has a form of Government called Federation. It consists of a number

of provinces, each with its own government. There is also a central government for the whole state, managing all common affairs. But the whole of Canada is not English. The people in the west are mostly French in origin, who are as loyal to the Crown as the descendants of the English settlers. Canada is a picturesque country with its boundless prairies, where the first settlers contended against the Red Indians, but which has now been turned into extensive wheat fields. We see in one part of the country lumbermen floating logs down the river, for Canada has great supplies of timber. In the far north, in Labrador, we can see sledges drawn by dogs, and the Eskimo snow-huts lit by blubber-fed lamps. Passing further down the American coast, we come to the West Indies, of which Jamaica is the largest, and there we find Negroes wearing curious head-dresses of straw, and working in banana plantations, or at windmills where the sugar-cane is crushed.

The African part of the British Empire forms a world by itself, or rather a museum of curiosities. In one region, we can watch a war-dance of the natives, who are armed with their assegais and shields. In Nigeria, we find Hausa huts made of slender wands and covered with grass. We can see the Kikuyu women carrying babies on their backs in Kenya, and young elephants dragging carts in West Africa. Or, we can ride in a "caravan along paths by which zebra, gnus and antelopes pass, while flamingoes cover and colour the skies, and the woodlands

swarm with baboons." We reach South Africa where the machines clang in the gold-fields of the Rand and the diamond mines of Kimberley, and we gaze at the capital, Cape Town, the oldest town in South Africa, nestling under the cloud-laden Table Mountain.

We pass on to Australia, which has been called the 'Land of the Golden Fleece,' on account of the millions of sheep that are reared there. We can witness, if we are industrially minded, sheep-shearing by machinery in a ranch in New South Wales, or test machines which grade apples in Tasmania. If we are partial to racing, we can watch the 'cup' at Melbourne. On the other hand, if natural scenery appeals to us, we can take a boat on the Swan river to see the wild black swans, or visit the limestone caves in the Blue Mountains. Australia, like Canada, is a Federation, and her capital Canberra, when completed, will be one of the finest cities of the world.

From Australia, New Zealand is just a giant's leap. Its olive-coloured inhabitants, the Maoris, were once very warlike, but have been tamed under the Pax Britannica and are now as loyal as any race in the Empire. We can stand on the bank of the river that curves in and out in the shade of weeping willows near Christ Church, and reflect on the industrial advance of the country, as manifested in the busy saw mills fed by the fallen Kauri pines which are hauled up to them by oxen, and the gold-dredging operations in the district of Westland. New Zealand consists of two islands, and the capital, Wellington, has one of the finest harbours in the world.

Cutting across the Pacific, we come to Malaya where British rule now extends over the whole Peninsula. It is here we have the great naval base of Singapore, which is designed to safeguard all the eastern part of the Empire. Thence we go to Ceylon, "the pearl drop of the east". Even before the ship reaches Colombo, we can smell the cinnamon gardens of this "Emerald Island". We can sit on the sand under the palms near Galle Face, and ponder on the intermingling of the old and the new in this island. The devil dancers celebrate their rites at Kandy; it is at Kandy again that a monk, dressed in yellow, shows one over the Buddhist Temple of the Tooth. Now we hear the noise of the rolling mills, which operate on withered tea-leaves, and the din of Sinhalese women pounding plumbago for pencil manufacture. Having girdled the globe, we pass down the Mediterranean, touching at the Magic Island of Malta, and presently see the majestic rock of Gibraltar rising sheer from the waters, and thus we are back in England, the centre of this glorious Empire.

As we watch the "ceaseless tide of human traffic that ebbs and flows through the Piccadilly Circus" in London, we marvel at the magnificent activity which built up this empire, and our thoughts turn inevitably to the King. Parliaments may come and go. Ministers may change, but Monarchy, now broad-based on democracy, has drawn unto itself those steel bands of sentiment which unite the Empire into an indivisible unit.

CHAPTER IX

THE PASSING PAGEANT OF INDIA

The conception of a common ruler for all India is as old as our great Epics. The *Mahabharata* describes the story of the gathering of the peoples of India from all the eight quarters on the battlefield of Kurukshetra to fight under the banner of a Chakravarti or Supreme Ruler. But the entire sub-continent of India came under one paramount authority only in 1858, when Her Majesty Queen Victoria took over the Government of British India from the East India Company.

Great Indian conquerors like Samudra Gupta had succeeded in establishing vast empires in the past. But none of them was able to bring the whole of India from the Himalayas to Cape Comorin under his full and undivided sovereignty. Nor did any of these empires last for a long time. They generally fell to pieces on the death of the able monarchs who had built them up. Even the great Asoka, whose empire was one of the largest in Indian History, did not attempt to bring the Tamil states under his dominion. The empires of the Kushans and the Guptas which followed were confined mainly to the north, while the empire which the Cholas established was limited to the south. Again, in the 14th century, there was Muhammad Bin Tughlak ruling over nearly the whole

of India. But the authority exercised by him over the defeated kings was feeble and imperfect. The Mughal Empire under Akbar had a greater political cohesion; but he also did not bring the states of the far south under his sway.

All these attempts at the political unification of India in the past were at best only partial or imperfect. The petty kings merely acknowledged their allegiance to the more powerful ruler; but for all practical purposes, they had their own way in their respective territories.

The more successful emperors established peace and security within their kingdoms. Under them, art and literature were encouraged, and trade and industries flourished. The peaceful reign of Asoka saw a great religious and spiritual revival. Buddhism spread not only throughout India but also in the Far East, and got a hold over nearly a sixth part of the human race. In the golden age of the Guptas, there was a widespread Hindu renaissance. Art and literature reached their supreme heights in this period. Some of the eminent poets like Kalidasa, and some of our famous scientists like Varahamihira the well-known Astronomer, and Arya Bhatta the Mathematician lived in these times. The famous Ajanta caves which represent the climax to which genuine Indian art ever attained were the products of this Periclean Age of Indian History. The Mughal emperors have perpetuated the memory of their greatness by their unrivalled mosques and mausoleums. The great Akbar not only patronised and developed the Fine Arts

but also built up an efficient revenue and administrative system which was, later on, adapted by the British.

But even the ablest and the best of these Indian monarchs was essentially an autocrat: his power were limited only by the goodness of his own character, and the respect he was disposed to show to the counsels of his advisers. The people had no control whatsoever over the government of the country. Representative institutions were practically unknown. There were tribal constitutions of a republican type, like those of the Malawas and the Sudrakas in the early days. But they did not spread far, and perished without leaving a trace. The interest attaching to the gradual evolution of political institutions in British history is almost entirely absent in the history of ancient and mediaeval India.

India had a strong ruler and an efficient central authority only occasionally. During the greater part of her history, the country was split up into countless petty states, which incessantly fought with one another, rendering progress of any kind well-nigh impossible. These warring states have been compared to a 'swarm of free, mutually repellant molecules in a state of incessant movement, now flying apart and again coalescing.' Their frontiers changed from day to day. There were constant intrigues in the palaces which often resulted in revolutions. Kings were frequently murdered by their own sons or relations, their generals and even their own slaves. The death of each sovereign was followed by a scramble for

power. The country, naturally, suffered acutely from the prevalent lawlessness and disorder. The petty chiefs themselves often became marauders, plundering the neighbouring states, whenever an opportunity offered itself. The land was full of criminal gangs, and organised bands of dacoits like the Pindaris and the Thugs struck terror into the heart of the lonely traveller. Pirates swarmed on the rivers and along the sea coast.

Trade and commerce could not flourish under such conditions. In addition to the insecurity of the roads, each petty ruler maintained his own toll-gates, and exacted other taxes as well from the merchants. There was no uniformity of currency. Every ruler, however petty, exercised the right of issuing his own coins with the result that there were hundreds of different currencies in the country. This made the trade of the money-changer a profitable one.

The people at large and the agriculturists in the villages went on struggling against man and nature, cherishing the memory of the last peaceful reign. There was no regular system of land revenue, the chiefs squeezing out what they could from the land-owners. The abler emperors, especially in the Mughal period, had their own revenue system. But when the Mughal empire declined, and lawlessness once again set in, the machinery for revenue and administration that they had set up broke down,

It became more and more difficult to collect land revenue, and the practice grew up of employing agents for the purpose. Besides paying the *kist* and the many

cesses to tax-farmers, the cultivators had to work without any remuneration at road-making and keeping irrigation works in repair. "The rulers bargained for the largest sum possible from the tax-farmers, who in their turn wrung it out of the poor peasants."

But, with the 17th century, a new era began. On January 10, 1616, there came an English Ambassador, Sir Thomas Roe, to the Court of the Mughal Emperor Jehangir. The Emperor was seated on his magnificent throne, with rich carpets underfoot and a resplendent canopy overhead, while from his turban flashed priceless jewels. Around him were gathered his nobles. The ambassador had come to ask for certain trading rights for the English, who had at that time no idea of political conquest. But as years rolled on, partly owing to the disordered state of the country on the break-up of the Mughal Empire, and partly owing to the rivalries of other traders like the Portuguese, the Dutch and the French, the British were forced to take part in Indian politics, and gradually they consolidated their position. By stages, they came to be in charge of the administration of the country, the collection of revenue and the dispensation of justice. As contrasted with the disorder of the surrounding country, the territory under the English presented a welcome sight. Life and property were secure, and there was an impartial and just administration.

Stage by stage, the whole of India passed under the British sway. The Mutiny was the last attempt of the old order to uproot the British authority. For

obvious reasons, this rebellion failed in its ultimate purpose.

The Mutiny closed a chapter in the history of the country, and prepared the way for the next. The administration was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown, and this was announced in a Proclamation issued by Queen Victoria in 1858, which assured the Indian princes of their rights, promised complete neutrality on the part of the Government towards the religious beliefs and customs of the people, and contained the following noble words:—
“We hold ourselves bound to the natives of our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty, which bind us to all our other subjects, and these obligations, by the blessings of Almighty God, we shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfil.”

CHAPTER X

THE PEASANT AT THE PLOUGH

The Indian farmer is the most conservative creature in the world. Have you seen him at work in the field? Patiently and cheerfully he plods on from day to day, contending in his own obscure way with the stubborn soil and inclement weather. It may be a raw, gusty winter morning or the scorching heat of the Dog-Days; still, he is at his plough, goading his team of lazy oxen, humming some old popular tune as though he were really free from care. His mud hovel is his palace of ease, to which he returns at sundown, to take his frugal food and enjoy a few hours of rest. His is a life of dull misery and hard toil, a life led under the most insanitary conditions. The march of civilisation has passed him by. Clinging fast to tradition, he remains the willing slave of old superstitions, setting his face against all change.

The British Government has been putting forth its very best efforts to ameliorate the condition of the Indian peasant; but the very magnitude of their undertaking and such obstacles as the conservatism of the agriculturists stand in the way of an immediate and complete success. The peasants live in villages, scattered throughout the length and breadth of India. The self-sufficiency of the old village life led to a conservatism which repressed all individual initiative.

The sway of custom and tradition stifled progress, and kept the peasant ignorant of the latest advances in agriculture. He carried on a meagre cultivation by primitive methods, and did not earn enough for the bare necessities of life.

Further, the lands of the cultivators lay scattered in different parts of the village fields, so that agricultural improvements were almost impossible. What with his very small and scattered holding, the ancestral debts piled upon him, and the fresh debts he himself contracted for marriages and litigation, the cultivator was always in need of money. Thus, he fell into the clutches of the money-lender. The ignorance of the peasant and the rapacity of the money-lender exceeded all bounds of credulity. In 1913, it was estimated that money-lenders charged interest up to 60%. The peasant had often to sell his grain far below the market value to his money-lender, who was also frequently the village-trader, and continued to live as ever in a state of chronic indebtedness.

The impetus to agricultural improvement has come from the Government, which has undertaken more far-reaching functions than the Government of any other country. It established at Delhi in 1929 the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, which has carried out very important investigations as regards several varieties of crops, implements and manures. But it is not enough to discover improved varieties of crops; the agriculturist must be convinced of their advantages by ocular demonstration. So the Government has started experimental farms to prove

to the people the advantages of various new methods; it popularises such knowledge by the distribution of leaflets written in the several vernaculars, by arranging lectures illustrated with lantern slides, by sending round exhibition-vans, and holding agricultural shows, where these improved varieties of seeds and implements can be inspected. Propaganda is more difficult in our country than in the West, because our peasantry is not only illiterate but also superstitious. This difficulty has been met by employing striking and spectacular methods of spreading information in the countryside. Agricultural moving pictures are sent round so as to interest as well as instruct the peasant. For the efficient discharge of these duties, the whole country has been divided into circles, each in charge of a Deputy Director of Agriculture, who has a full staff of competent demonstrators.

Agricultural schools and colleges have been started by the Government, and young men educated in these institutions have carried the new gospel to their villages. The Meteorological Department issues daily bulletins and warnings of squally weather or heavy rainfall. The Government is also trying its best to disable the money-lender from charging heavy interest or dispossessing the peasants of their lands. It also gives loans, called Takavi, at a low rate of interest to landowners for improving their land, and they are allowed to repay these amounts in small instalments.

The Government has also enabled the peasants to raise money on easy terms by encouraging the star-

ting of Rural Co-operative Credit Societies. The first Co-operative Society was formed in 1904; these Societies have since rapidly developed. They are associations of the villagers who pool their resources for mutual help. Some of these Societies maintain dispensaries, construct roads and carry on minor irrigation works. As a result of all this, an improvement in the standard of life of the cultivator is now noticeable. His children are better clothed and cared for; and no longer is he face to face with abject misery.

India, in the past, was suffering periodically from terrible famines. Too much of rain or too little of it brought on a famine, and at one stroke thousands were condemned to starvation. The terrible nature of a famine of those days can be gathered from a picture drawn in 1630, by a Dutch merchant who was living in India and which is contained in a work written by Prof. Moeland. In towns and villages, in fields and roads, men lay dead in great numbers, sending up a horrible stench. For want of grass, cattle fed on these corpses. As the famine increased, men wandered about helplessly, howling for food—eyes sunk, lips cracked, the bones showing through the stretched skin. Some families took poison and died together. Others threw themselves into the rivers, which carried the corpses to the sea. Mothers sold their children as slaves. Many devoured human flesh; more terrible, men fed on living men, so that in the streets one ran the risk of being murdered and eaten all at once.

The first systematic attempt at famine relief was made by the British Government. Famine Codes

have been devised, under which able-bodied men are given employment by the State at a wage sufficient to maintain health, while the impotent poor are given free relief. The Government also set up a specific Famine Relief Fund, and famines no longer mean the dreadful calamity that they were formerly. Organised relief has also decreased the ravages of diseases like cholera, which accompanied famines. Nor does the Government wait for a famine to overtake the land. It does all it can to prevent it, and large sums of money have been spent on the construction of railways which can rush food-supplies to the afflicted areas.

Even more important are the massive irrigation works undertaken and completed by the Government. Thus, more land has been brought under cultivation and the food production has been increased. Irrigation is the greatest achievement of British rule. Fifty years ago, the extent of land irrigated by Government works was ten and a half million acres; now it has trebled itself. Irrigation has changed the Punjab from one of the poorest into one of the most prosperous of Indian provinces. An extensive system of canals has brought large tracts of waste land under the plough, and has also provided a great wheat reserve for the rest of India. From the Central Punjab to Karachi, there formerly stretched a desert, with a scanty cultivation in the river basins. Irrigation works have now so covered this region with vegetation that only small patches of barren land are visible here and there.

: Among the prominent irrigation works in North India is the Sukkur Barrage, which is called the Eighth Wonder of the World. Its construction was a romance of labour, a miracle of engineering skill. Men worked nine years in that hot and arid climate, exposed to the scorching heat and almost blinded by the flying sands of the desert. Armed sentries had to be stationed at night to guard against the man-eating tigers which prowled in the area; and, in spite of all vigilance they carried away several workmen. But, at long last, the work was completed. The Indus, a river subject to violent floods, has now its flow regulated by this dam which stretches for a mile across it, and its waters are turned into channels specially dug for the purpose. In the Upper Ganges-Jumna Doab, there has been one of the most remarkable canal developments in the world; all these have brought about an enormous increase in the total area under cultivation.

Recently, there has been completed in the south the Stanley Dam at Mettur, which is the largest of the kind in the world. It took ten years to complete. The Dam is built in a gorge, where the Cauvery enters the plain. It can store over 90,000 million cubic feet of water. As a result of this, the delta of the Cauvery would no longer be at the mercy of the capricious monsoon, and the floods would be moderated. It has also been calculated that an additional thirty thousand acres of land would be brought under cultivation, thus increasing the rice supply of the Madras Presidency. Besides these great irrigation

works, the Government encourages the construction of tanks and the sinking of wells by cultivators.

The cattle of the Indian peasant roam at large for their food, so that it is impossible to control their breeding, or to prevent the spread of cattle diseases. In an English commercial farm, a cow is expected to give forty pounds of milk a day; but, in India, the maximum yield is less than three pounds! The Government is doing its best to remedy this great defect. Stud-bulls are maintained at Government Farms for breeding purposes. Valuable research-work on cattle diseases is being carried on in the Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research at Muktesar. Veterinary Hospitals and Colleges have also been established.

Another noteworthy achievement is the conservation of the forest resources. Forests play an important part in the natural economy of a country, for they attract rainfall, store water, and give it out gradually. They form rich vegetable moulds, which increase soil-fertility. Formerly, the Indo-Gangetic plain had been covered with dense forests; but these disappeared long ago owing to reckless destruction. Forest preservation has been carried on by the British Government since 1865. The Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun has already done valuable research work.

The future of India largely depends on the development of her agricultural resources, and the improvement of the conditions of life of the farmer. The efforts of the Government in this direction show that it has realised that the peasant is the backbone of the Indian nation.

CHAPTER XI

THE HUM OF INDUSTRY

India is a land of sharp contrasts. It presents vast plains and dense forests, and extensive fields where the peasant drives his plough ; and, in different centres of the land, one sees the smoking chimneys of big factories, and hears the busy hum of humanity. Both the rural and the urban economies are characteristic of modern India, though the former is a relic of the past, while the latter is of recent growth, and due to the influence of Western Civilization. We stand on the summit of one of the minarets of the Jumma Masjid at Delhi, and watch the clouds of smoke belched forth from the industrial quarters. We travel through the ancient historical ruins of Delhi ; but at sunset, when the quick-ebbing twilight of Northern India turns into an inky blackness, the expanse of New Delhi bursts into a blaze of electric lights, as if a million giant fireflies had settled in a glittering swarm on the site. We return from a visit to the old temple of Kali at Calcutta, and on our way hear the roar of the jute mills. Though India still retains traces of her ancient past, everywhere we see the working of the new forces of industry.

The Indian craftsman had set before himself a standard of good workmanship in the past, and had reached a high level of artistic excellence.

But the old cottage industries, in course of time, declined. The stagnation of industrial initiative in the country was so complete that European businessmen found it possible to start new industries with their capital. British capitalists have opened out tea and coffee plantations, cotton and jute-mills, coal and mineral-oil mines, and numerous other lines of business. It is estimated that about 85% of the capital employed in companies operating in India is British, and this has greatly contributed to the industrialisation of the country.

The new industrial activity manifested itself in two ways—the opening of plantations and establishment of factories. The first of these has been achieved ever since the beginning mainly by Europeans. There are now in this country extensive plantations of Indigo, Tea, Coffee and Rubber. Tea was introduced into India in 1835. The magnitude attained by the Indian tea industry during the last hundred years is illustrated by the fact that while in 1875 the production was only 91 million pounds, in 1931 it was over 394 million pounds! The bulk of the tea goes to the United Kingdom, and this export adds to the wealth of India. The industry provides employment to thousands of our countrymen. In South India, European capitalists have converted the hilly jungle-tracts of Mysore into luxuriant coffee gardens. In recent years, rubber plantations have also increased enormously.

Prior to the advent of the British, industry in

India was carried on in villages by handicraftsmen. It is only in recent times that factory industries have been started in cotton, jute, coal, iron and steel, tin plate, petroleum and mica. The most important of these is certainly the textile industry. The early spinning and weaving companies started in India in 1831 were purely British ones. It is noteworthy that Indian enterprise has been in recent years attracted by the cotton industry, with more than gratifying results. It was the Great War that gave a boom to the Indian cotton industry. Till 1914, it was localised mainly in Bombay and Ahmedabad. After the war, spinning and weaving factories have been started in many important towns like Sholapur, Cawnpore, Nagpur and Madras. There are nearly 350 mills working in India, 90 of which are in Bombay. They produce annually about 2500 million yards of cloth, and supply about half of India's total demands. Our mills, of course, are hard pressed by competition from outside. Still it is pleasing to note that they are holding their own against overwhelming odds.

Jute forms the only important manufactured article exported from India. It is produced in Bengal, and the industry has always been completely in the hands of European capitalists. India produces the major portion of the world's jute.

The history of the iron and steel industry in this country is associated with the name of the most eminent of India's industrial magnates, Mr. J. N. Tata. His endeavours to work India's iron mines met at first with little encouragement. But he persevered with zeal

and in 1907, was able to start the Tata Iron and Steel Company, with a share capital subscribed entirely by Indians. The company produced its first supply of steel in 1913. The heavy demand set up by the Great War made the company stronger than ever, and increased its scope of usefulness.

India possesses a plentiful supply of coal in Bengal and the Central Provinces. But before British capital came flowing in, the want of money for setting up the plant to extract it from the innermost depths of the mines was a great obstacle. There was, again, no skilled labour available in India to work in the mines. But now India produces the largest amount of coal, next only to Britain, among the Empire countries. Coal is the parent of other industries, for it provides the fuel for the production of steam as motive-power.

The gold-mines of Mysore are worked with all the efficiency of modern science. Formerly, gold was extracted in a very crude fashion. But up-to-date machinery is now used in the Kolar Gold-Fields, and a large number of men find employment therein.

The Government has been doing its best to help industrial progress. Scholarships are granted to promising students for advanced courses of technical training abroad. Institutions imparting technical education have also been established in various parts of the country. To help businessmen, an Industrial Intelligence and Research Bureau has been set up. In several provinces, the Provincial Governments are giving technical advice.

and financial help for the development of industries. It is also the policy of the Government that all the stores needed for its purposes should; as far as possible, be purchased in India itself; so that Indian industry might be benefited. Another recent development has been the grant of protection to industries, which are affected by foreign competition. Import duties have been levied on those foreign goods which compete with Indian manufactures. Five great industries (steel; cotton, sugar, match and bamboo paper) are thus protected.

One of the most important developments of recent years has been the starting of hydro-electric schemes. Electricity could be produced in the past only where there was coal to drive the dynamo which generated electricity. Now, engineers have perfected a contrivance, called the Water-Turbine, which enables them to use the force of waterfalls to drive the dynamos. Thus, electricity is being produced cheaply and on so large a scale that it is distributed over a wide area. The first important project of this kind was started in 1915. In the region of the Western Ghats there falls an enormous amount of rain, which runs to waste. The Tata Company conceived the idea of catching the seasonal rainfall in huge water stores, and converting the energy of the fall into electricity. This project supplies electric power to the City of Bombay and its suburban electric railway service. Similar hydro-electric projects like the Pykara scheme in the Madras Presidency have been started in various parts of India. The Madras Government

is also starting another hydro-electric scheme at Mettur.

With such changes in industrial conditions, it has become the duty of the Government to safeguard the health and comfort of the workers. Here, we are fortunate, because we have benefited by the experience of other countries, and have tried to avoid the social evils which resulted from industrialisation elsewhere. In the early days of industrialism in England, the factory was overcrowded with men and machinery. Good ventilation was not cared for. The machines were often exposed, so that accidents were common. If a labourer was injured or killed, the employer did not acknowledge any responsibility, for there was abundant supply of labour. If one man died or was dismissed, there were a hundred others clamouring for the vacant place. The hours of labour were very long and tedious. One factory labourer said: "I began work at six, and went on till night. I took my breakfast and tea as I could, a bite and a run, sometime not able to eat it for its being covered with dust." The wages were so low that in spite of long hours of toil, the labourer was often on the verge of starvation.

Against such danger we have tried to safeguard ourselves. The Government assumed from the first the ultimate responsibility of giving protection to the labouring classes. A series of Factory Acts have forbidden child-labour, and limited the hours of work for adults to fifty-four in the week. Factories have to be properly ventilated, machines have to be fenced in, and adequate precautions have to be taken for the

personal safety of the workers. The factories are supervised by Inspectors invested with wide powers. Following the example of England, the Government has also passed an Act by which factory-owners are made responsible for injuries received by their employees while at work, and are forced to give them compensation. The Government has also provided by the Trade Disputes Act a machinery to solve disputes between workmen and employers, and has legally permitted the formation of Trade Unions.

Though the Government has granted rights and privileges to the workers, their illiteracy leads to their being exploited by the employers. The attitude of the Government towards labour was defined by the Viceroy, Lord Chelmsford, in a speech delivered in 1920: "I would earnestly impress upon employers the necessity for sympathetic consideration of the claims of labour. It has too often proved the case that employers, after a long and ruinous struggle, have been forced to concede to claims that they might have allowed with honour and with profit as soon as they were presented." Some industrial concerns have done much for labour. But there are dark spots still. Bombay is a city of palaces, but most of its labourers live with their families in one-room tenements. In several large cities, Improvement Trusts have been formed to attend to the housing problem of workmen. There are a number of voluntary social organisations, which try to improve their conditions of life. The Government is also safeguarding the political status of labourers; and it is anticipated that, in the

forth-coming reforms, representatives of labour will be elected to the Federal Assembly and the Provincial Legislatures by a special electorate consisting of labourers only.

The Government, while fostering the new industries, has not neglected the old cottage industries surviving in the country. It has tried to improve the condition of the cottage workers. It has also encouraged the improvement of the handloom, so that the village weavers might increase the quality and the value of their output.

CHAPTER XII

TRAVEL AND TRADE

India's trade began to increase enormously ever since she came under the British crown. Thus, in 1851, the combined value of India's exports and imports of merchandise and treasure amounted to barely 34 crores. In 1924-25 it had reached a total of 758 crores.

Side by side with this expansion of external trade, there has been an enormous growth of internal trade also. Before the British period, trade was much hampered by the then-prevailing crude methods of transport. On the rivers, there plied crude boats. On land, bullocks, horses, camels, elephants and mules furnished the chief means of transport. In most parts of the land, there were no roads; and even where they existed they were unfit for use in the rainy months, except by people travelling on foot. The carts used were of the most primitive type. Trade was naturally restricted. Prices varied greatly from place to place. For instance, in 1802 while there was a terrible famine in the Deccan, grain was cheap in Gujaret. Further, tolls were levied on every article of trade, as it passed through each petty state, and very often the customs officers were dishonest and made enormous exactions. There were grave risks in travel, and merchants had to go in company for fear of robbers who infested the country.

The railways that came in with British rule have considerably altered these conditions. In 1853 the first railway was opened between Bombay and Thana. Next year, the East Indian Railway began to convey passengers, and in course of time the country was intersected with a network of railways. Railways have promoted trade. In the old days of village isolation, the peasant was at the mercy of the village-dealer, to whom he had to sell all his produce. Now the railways have opened out a wider market all over India. Further, they have made travelling rapid and easy. Labour is thus made more fluid; it can migrate to plantations, mines and factories. Railways in this way have helped the unification of India. Formerly it took six months for a regiment to march from Calcutta to Peshawar. Now, railways connect all large cities and many villages, and the suburban lines of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta have been electrified.

The development of railways stimulated the construction of good roads, which connected the railway stations with the adjacent villages. Nowadays, India has come to have miles of good roads on which innumerable motor cars and motor buses pass up and down throughout the day.

Another great help to trade has been the establishment of Post and Telegraph services. Thousands of miles of telegraph wires intersect the land, and a message can be flashed from Cape Comorin to Peshawar in a few minutes. The postal service has also progressed enormously in its usefulness and efficiency. "The village postman is a figure of immense

local importance. Besides performing his routine functions of clearing letter-boxes, delivering correspondence, dealing with money-orders and such like, he undertakes many other activities quite outside the scope of ordinary postal work. In fact, he is not so much a postal official as a perambulating public utility agent, forming the chief link between the general populace and the outside world."

We have an organised telephone system also. The developments made in England in long-distance telephone service have been extended to India; and those in Madras can now make a trunk call on a man in Bombay for a comparatively small amount. India is thus intimately connected with every part of the world. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 brought Bombay within a fortnight's distance of London. India is also linked to the rest of the world by the electric cable and by wireless telegraphy. But the outstanding development in recent years has been in air-transport. In 1926 the Imperial Airways Service to India was organised. Starting from London at 12-30 p.m. on a Tuesday, one can reach Karachi at 4-35 p.m., the next Sunday. Nor is this all. Internally also, India has been knit together by air-service. A man can leave Madras in the afternoon and reach Bombay by air next morning, finish his business there and return the morning after to Madras. The Government has provided facilities for training Indians in aviation and young Indians are taking to it with great avidity. At Southampton there is an Indian undergoing training in aviation at the

expense of the Government, and more than twelve other non-stipendiary students from all over India.

The Government has also provided facilities for the training of Indians in the Mercantile Marine. Every year some cadets are recruited and trained in the ship *Dufferin*, which is specially set apart for this purpose.

Before a uniform system of coinage was introduced, a number of coins of different values were in use, and there was a bewildering confusion of currency which dislocated trade. The Indian Rupee came into existence in 1835. The introduction of a uniform currency throughout the country has stimulated the growth of banks.

We have a well-organized banking system, at the head of which there is now a Reserve Bank which has been recently established to serve the whole of India. The Government has also helped the expansion of trade and commerce in several other ways. In 1905, a Department of Commerce and Industry was established by the Government of India to stimulate trade; and in recent years Trade Commissioners have been appointed in London and several other capital cities, so that Indian goods might find a better market in foreign countries.

One important result of the growth of trade has been the rise of new towns. When the British landed in India, Madras was barely a town. Now it has developed into a big commercial city. Calcutta was originally an insignificant spot on the Hooghly, marshy and malarial; but in recent times it has developed into the second largest city in the British

Empire. Bombay has similarly developed into the seaward gate of India with a fine harbour; it owes its greatness entirely to the trading genius of Englishmen. Other new harbours which have become prominent as a result of the growth of trade are Karachi, Chittagong, Vizagapatam and Cochin. The time seems not far distant when India will be a country of towns at least as much as of villages.

CHAPTER XIII

THE SMILE OF SARASWATI

It is now recognised everywhere that the State owes one supreme duty to all its people, the duty of providing elementary education for all, either free of cost, or as cheaply as possible. The importance of this idea was realised even in the west only in the 19th century. In India there was nothing like mass education till the advent of the British. Whatever of learning there was, was confined to the Brahmin pandits, who preserved a knowledge of the old literature and science in Samskrit, and to the Muhammadan Mullas, who cultivated the study of Arabic and Persian. When the English came to India, a number of great Englishmen like Wilkins, William Jones and Wilson were attracted by our ancient literature. Great scholars like Jackson studied Samskrit, and got into touch with Indian Pandits.

From the very beginning, the British realised the necessity of introducing western education into India. In 1813 when the Charter of the East India Company was renewed by Parliament, a fresh clause was added ordering that every year a sum of at least a lakh of rupees should be devoted to educational activities. The principle which animated British administrators is concisely defined in the noble words of Sir Charles Metcalfe: "Whatever may be the consequences, it is

our duty to communicate the benefit of knowledge. If India could be preserved as part of the British Empire only by keeping its inhabitants in a state of ignorance, our dominion would be a curse to the country, and ought to cease."

In 1835, on the advice of Lord Macaulay, the then Governor-General Lord William Bentinck decided on the momentous step of imparting education in English to the people of India. We can understand this attitude of Macaulay, only if we remember that at that time indigenous culture had sunk so low that it was almost non-existent. Macaulay, along with several others, held that he was conferring a boon on India by making available the rich stores of Western knowledge and English literature to intelligent Indians. Following this policy, the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay were founded. In course of time, numerous other Universities and colleges have been established, and Western education has taken deep root in the land.

This educational policy of the Government has contributed in a large measure to the rapid advancement of India. The English language provided, for the first time, a common medium for the exchange of ideas. The Indian Census enumerates 222 languages as prevalent in the country. This fact can make us realise the supreme importance of English as the bond uniting the different parts of India. The present national consciousness in the country would have been impossible without this common medium. Madras audiences can now understand the talk and

ideas of their Punjabi brethren, as expounded in English by a speaker from that area.

We have already produced a large body of efficient Indian administrators and petty officials, from members of the Executive Council to ordinary clerks. The growth of this large administrative service which operates throughout India would have been impossible without the spread of English education.

Western learning and culture have flowed into the country, and under the influence of new ideas many social evils are being slowly removed. The barriers which divide one community from another have been broken. The educated classes, having imbibed the political and social ideas of the West, have developed a new spirit of citizenship and civic responsibility.

This impact of Western thought has roused India from her long torpor. In recent years, she has produced a long roll of distinguished writers who all came under the spell of Western thought. Men steeped in Western lore, like the great poet Dr. Rabindranath Tagore, have attempted a real fusion of the best of Western and Eastern cultures. Poets like Mrs. Sarojini Naidu have won the praise of English critics. Eminent orators like the Right Hon'ble V. S. Srinivasa Sastry, and philosophers like Dr. Sir S. Radhakrishnan have interpreted the mind of India to the West in English, which has excited the envy and admiration of Englishmen themselves. In recent years India has made rapid strides in scientific research also; eminent physicists like Sir C. V. Raman and Dr. J. C.

Bose and chemists like Sir P. C. Ray, are counted among the foremost scientists of the day. It is worthy of note that Sir C. V. Raman was awarded the Nobel Prize for Science, and Dr. Tagore for Literature. There are found in many University centres groups of savants who are doing work of the highest quality for the advancement of knowledge.

From the time of the Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, an Archaeological Survey Department has been maintained by the Government. It has made valuable discoveries concerning the past history of our land. For instance, it discovered in 1923 materials demonstrating that there had been in North-West India an entirely unsuspected and astonishingly elaborate civilization, so long ago as the 4th millenium B. C. The Archaeological Department also preserves and repairs a large number of our old historical monuments. If we visit the Kutb Minar at Delhi, we find not only that this magnificent monument is well preserved, but that the Department also maintains very attractive gardens around it which add greatly to its beauty. The Department has also established museums.

The rich vegetation that greets our eye everywhere in India has been systematically analysed by the Botanical Survey of India, which incidentally also helps agriculture and industry, by giving information concerning plants of economic importance. The animal life of India is studied by the Zoological Survey, and information regarding Indian fauna is compiled and catalogued by competent experts. The Geological

Survey, organised in 1851, has revealed valuable deposits of mineral resources in the country.

The spread of English education has not brought about the neglect of the Vernaculars of India. Great attention has been bestowed recently on the development of Indian languages. Linguists who have absorbed the best in Western thought are interpreting it to the people in the several Vernaculars of the country.

Two great Viceroys, Lord Mayo and Lord Ripon, made sincere efforts for the first time to remove the appalling illiteracy of the masses in the country; their work has been continued with increasing earnestness ever since. Here also the Government, while aiding and encouraging local and private enterprise, itself maintains several institutions. The amount spent upon education has increased from one crore of rupees in 1897 to seven crores in 1927.

Tremendous advance has been made in recent years towards the ideal of free and compulsory elementary education. Besides encouraging elementary education, efforts are also made to convey knowledge to the illiterate adults. In several villages, night schools have been established, where adults are taught the rudiments of knowledge.

An impetus to higher education was given by the founding of five Universities, during the latter half of 19th century, in the five capital towns of British India. The earliest Universities were those of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad and Lahore. Even prior to the establishment of these,

Universities, many colleges had been opened in various parts of the country by the Government, by Missionary bodies and by private indigenous enterprise. The founding of these Universities stimulated the desire for higher education among the people. Vigorous and unceasing efforts are made by Government and by distinguished educationists to make the system of higher education better adapted to the nature and the needs of the Indian people.

But it is not every one who can take to a purely literary education. For this reason, the Government has provided facilities for technical education also. Schools and Colleges have been established in various provinces, where special training is given in medicine, engineering, agriculture, industry and commerce. The munificence of the Ruling Princes of India and the untiring efforts of Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya have led to the growth of one of our greatest Universities, the Benares Hindu University. Similarly, the Aligarh University which provides special facilities for the higher education of Muslims originated from private Muslim enterprise. Equally noteworthy is the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, which owes its origin to the generosity of the industrial magnate, Sir Dorabji Tata.

Of late, great attention has also been bestowed on physical education, which has been made compulsory in educational institutions in several parts of India. There has been recently growing up a remarkable enthusiasm for sports and games, particularly, cricket, tennis, football and hockey. Here again

the example of the British who as a race the finest sportsmen in the world has influenced us. There has been a large increase in sports-clubs, and Municipalities have reserved public playgrounds to which hundreds of young men resort daily for physical culture and games.

Notable advance has been made in the education of women as well. There are seven colleges for women in the Madras Presidency, four of which are in Madras itself. The Lady Hardinge Medical School at Delhi draws about hundred students from High Schools all over India for medical training. A separate University for women has been established in Poona through the enterprise of Mr. Karve. Indian women are now playing an important part in society as teachers, lawyers, and doctors. Even for those men and women who have never gone to a school, a new means of education has been found in the development of rural broadcasting.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ANGEL OF HEALTH

India had her own systems of medicine in the past, some of which are surviving into the present also. But though there is much traditional wisdom in the indigenous systems, the absence of a scientific background had left the field free for the quack doctor. Hence, it was inevitable that the early British administrators should establish hospitals where the Western system of medicine was practised. Public hospitals under Government control have been opened in the bigger towns, and rural dispensaries in villages. The popularity of these institutions has increased enormously. Besides hospitals for general complaints, there are special hospitals for infectious diseases such as cholera, plague, small-pox and leprosy. There have also been established special asylums for the insane. This work of mercy is performed by an efficient organization of doctors and nurses, trained according to the latest medical science of the West. Modern science has discovered methods of curing diseases by attacking the germs which cause them. Thus the doctors may be said to have 'saved more lives than all the wars of the ages have thrown away'. Recently, attempts have also been made to reorganize on scientific lines the indigenous systems

of medicine, so that what is best in them may be made available to suffering humanity.

But the Government does not content itself with merely providing hospitals and doctors. Elaborate attempts have been made by them to prevent diseases altogether. Formerly, in India, smallpox claimed numerous victims, blinded or maimed many, and defaced almost all. A compulsory system of vaccination of children has now lessened its ravages. In the same way, it is more and more impressed upon the minds of the people that diseases like Cholera, Plague, Dysentery and Typhoid are all preventible and can be stamped out. An Indian Council of the British Empire Leprosy Association was formed in 1925 to combat the serious menace of Leprosy. Here, the problem is complicated because of the tendency of sufferers to hide their malady until a late stage.

In addition to these, the King George (Anti-Tuberculosis) Fund organises educational propaganda against that terrible disease, Tuberculosis. Many scientists and doctors are carrying on research concerning the treatment of tropical diseases. It was a pioneer worker, Sir Ronald Ross, a Doctor in the Indian Medical Service, who discovered the mosquito which carried the malarial germ, and thus helped the whole world to fight this disease. In 1927, the Government of India established a Malaria Survey with headquarters at Kasauli for the study of the disease. Since it was found that quinine was a specific against malaria, plantations of cinchona from which

quinine is extracted have been maintained by the Government, and quinine is made available to the people at a nominal price.

The Government has also, amongst other measures to prevent disease, promoted sanitation by insisting on a pure water-supply and a well-organized system of drainage and conservancy. Both in towns and villages increasing attention is being paid to these necessities. Our people have always believed in personal cleanliness. The Hindu Scriptures greatly stress the importance of personal purity. The Muslims also believe in the principle that 'cleanliness is the key of heaven'. But even now, one can notice in our towns and villages householders shooting masses of rubbish on to the public streets, allowing their sewage to flow out into the open, and otherwise defacing public places. Here, besides what the Government can do and is doing, it is only the growth of a wholesome public opinion and a proper knowledge of the principles of sanitation which can stop these pernicious practices.

The advance made in reducing maternal and infant mortality has been remarkable. The Hindu belief in the 'uncleanness' of women at childbirth left them to the mercies of a caste of midwives, belonging to a low and ignorant stratum of society. Naturally, horrible and preventible suffering attended every childbirth. This question attracted the attention of the wife of Lord Dufferin, a Viceroy. She started a scheme for training women as doctors and nurses. Another great woman—again the wife of a Viceroy—

Lady Chelmsford, initiated an All-India Maternity and Infant Welfare League. There was also set up the Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund to provide means whereby indigenous midwives might be given efficient scientific training. Now these organizations have been incorporated with the Indian Red Cross Society. This Society not only carries on valuable work regarding maternity welfare, but also co-ordinates voluntary medical and social work throughout the country. Child welfare centres have been organised in all towns. Health Exhibitions and Baby Shows are held and prizes are awarded to the healthiest babies. There is another organization called the St. John's Ambulance Association, which gives instruction in First Aid, Home-Nursing, Hygiene and Sanitation.

The Indian Red Cross Society has a special section called the Junior Red Cross, in which the help of the young is secured to teach the common people better and more hygienic habits of life. A recent account of the valuable work done by the Junior Red Cross in a village in the Madras Presidency may be of interest. The village was divided into sections, for the welfare of each of which three Juniors were responsible. They took sick people to dispensaries and, if the patients were old and infirm, made themselves responsible for fetching the medicines. They noted down all diseases of cattle, and letters were sent from the group requesting the early attendance of the veterinary inspector. The young boys took turns in giving a five minutes' talk on some health topic, a

health song or a recitation. They took special pride not only in their personal cleanliness but also in keeping the village school and the rest of the village spotlessly clean. The people of the village are said to have paid far more attention to this form of health propaganda than to the more formal lectures of others.

The crusade against disease, though a difficult and uphill fight, promises to be victorious in the near future.

CHAPTER XV

THE URGE FOR UPLIFT

The problem of social reform in India is beset with peculiar difficulties. For one thing, religion dominates social life so completely in our country that few customs or practices can be criticised without raising religious issues. Wisely recognising this, the British Government has from the beginning followed the principle of complete religious neutrality. This principle was eloquently put forward in 1858 in the Proclamation of Queen Victoria: "Firmly relying ourselves in the truth of Christianity, we disclaim alike the right and the desire to impose our convictions on any of our subjects."

But, while following a policy of religious neutrality, the British Government did not tolerate customs which were flagrantly inhuman or immoral, though they might claim the sanction of religion. There was for instance the Hindu custom of Suttee. Lord William Bentinck, the most humane of Governors-General, put a stop to this custom in 1833. Again, some of the aboriginal tribes like the Khonds believed that their deity should be propitiated by human sacrifices. This dreadful practice has also been stamped out.

The Government has been evincing keen interest in all works of constructive social reform. The lot of the Depressed Classes, for example, has been made

more tolerable in recent times, as a result of the organised efforts of the Government and the individual endeavours of many high-souled Indian social reformers. The cruel disabilities under which they suffered are being removed. No longer are they warned off public streets or denied the use of public wells and public schools. Special schools have also been started to provide facilities for their education. They have been given their fair share of public appointments. But the Government can do little beyond guaranteeing to the members of these classes the legal right to which all citizens are entitled. The proper treatment of the Depressed Classes is more a matter for public opinion; and on such matters, public opinion, which is slow in developing, is slower in India than elsewhere.

However, a definite and perceptible change has come over public opinion in regard to this particular social evil. The spirit of progress is abroad. The study of Western literature has familiarised the people with the ideas of the West. Contact with Europe has enlarged the outlook of India, and foreign travel has broken down the old rigidity and isolation. Persons of all classes travel together in railway trains, motor-buses and ships. Generally speaking, the long reign of caste-exclusiveness is approaching its end. Throughout India, there is strong evidence of the spirit of social reform, and a stronger realisation of the injustice done to the 'untouchables'.

Reform movements have been started within Hinduism itself. The Brahmo Samaj, founded a century ago by the great reformer Raja Ram Mohan Roy

combines the main principles of all religions and has, as one of its objects, the emancipation of Indians from the fetters of caste and superstition. The Arya Samaj, another powerful movement, is more orthodox in character, but it also is opposed to the caste system. Further, numerous social conferences are held for the discussion of topics of social reform. Members of the so-called Depressed Classes are more and more treated by high caste men as their equals: the old barriers of caste are gradually breaking down. The day is not far off when words like 'pariah' and 'low caste' will drop out of the currency of speech, or will survive merely as metaphors, and as examples of obsolete words in dictionaries.

Much has been done in recent years for the uplift of women. In spite of the high place given to them in the past, the women of India were for long living in a state of tutelage. The baneful custom of child marriage was adopted by the Hindus on religious grounds. With the coming of the Muhammadans, there sprang up the purdah system. The influence of Western thought has happily turned men's attention to the melancholy plight of Indian women. There has been in recent years remarkable progress in female education. The Women's Movement has been doing very useful work during the past fifty years. Since 1926 an All-India Women's Conference for educational and social reforms meets every year. There is at present a strong feeling against the purdah, even where it exists.

Indian women to-day take an active and intelli-

gent interest in public life. In all the provinces, women have the right to vote at the elections and sit in the legislature. Madras led the way in the enfranchisement of women by electing in 1927 a woman as the Deputy President of the Provincial Legislature. In 1929, the marriageable age of girls and boys was raised by law to fourteen and eighteen respectively. India has awakened from her age-long sleep, and the bright day of progress has dawned.

In former times, slavery was sanctioned by law. It was the practice of invaders to enslave their prisoners of war. Very often children were kidnapped to be sold as slaves. When a famine broke out, many people sold their children or themselves into slavery. This ancient abuse was brought to an end in 1843, when the British Government made slavery illegal. In this step, India went even in advance of England, for in England when slavery was abolished the slave-owners were compensated by the State for their loss. In India, no such compensation was paid.

One great social evil that engages the attention of every government in the West is the drink problem. In India, there is a strong public opinion against drunkenness. Many in our country desire that complete prohibition should be enforced by law. But this is difficult because it needs a costly preventive force. It has been said that in India a man with a knife and a pot can get as much toddy as he likes from a wayside palm tree. So the policy of the Government at present is that of steadily minimising the consumption of liquor.

Another problem which the Government has successfully tackled is the production and sale of opium. Long before the League of Nations addressed itself to this question, the Government of India had matured a most rigorous system of restriction. This was possible because the Government controlled the production and sale of opium throughout the country. It is now committed to the policy of the ultimate extinction of all exports of opium, except for medical and scientific purposes.

Social reform is, by its very nature, a slow process. Especially so is this true of India, with her staunch conservatism and love of tradition. Still, the measure of progress which we have achieved in social matters under British rule is gratifying.

CHAPTER XVI

THE SCALES OF JUSTICE

It is said of the Mahratta raiders that "wherever their kettledrums were heard, the peasant threw his bag of rice on his shoulder, put his small savings in his girdle, and fled with his wife and children to the mountains or the jungles, to the milder neighbourhood of the hyena and the tiger". This represents an extreme phase of Indian life in the pre-British period ; but, in a milder measure, it is true that there was no security of life or property in those days. An outstanding achievement of the British Government has been the establishment of settled order and peace throughout the country.

An efficient organisation has been created for the maintenance of law and order. For the first time in the history of India, we have a well-disciplined civil police force who maintain the peace of the country. It is only when the disorder is too great for them to control that the aid of the military is sought. The idea which animated successive Viceroys may be expressed in the words of Lord Mayo, speaking to certain Rajput rulers: "We demand that everywherejustice and order shall prevail; that every man's property shall be secure; that the traveller may come and go in safety; that the toiler shall enjoy the fruits of his labour, and the trader the produce of his commerce".

From early times, India had criminal organisations. But marauders like the Thugs were, within a period of six years, broken up by Lord William Bentinck, and they ceased to be a terror except in the pages of Meadows Taylor. Even then, some criminal tribes continued to exist; but the crimes of these people did not generally go beyond cattle-lifting. They also are now kept strictly under control, and the severe punishment which quickly follows an offence has given law-abiding people a sense of security. So great is the confidence created in the Government that the latter is commonly called by the illiterate people 'Ma-Bap', which means 'parents of the people'. British peace has encouraged the growth of agriculture, trade and industry.

The modern police force is well-organised; every crime committed in a locality is at once attended to by the Sub-Inspector at the Thana. Upon him devolves the duty of investigating the crime and bringing the offender speedily to justice.

Under British rule, strict and impartial administration of justice has been secured. A few centuries ago, the law courts were full of vagaries of procedure, and were influenced by considerations alien to justice. Now, for the first time, there is the same law for all. The law recognises no distinction of caste, creed or social position.

The British have also introduced into India the well-organised judicial machinery which is functioning in England. The fundamental principle of English law, that none should be punished for any offence

without a proper trial, has been established in India. The British maxim now prevails that the accused is to be regarded as innocent until his guilt is established in a court of law. It is the duty of the police to provide evidence before impartial judges to prove that the accused is really guilty. The latter is given the opportunity to defend himself by counsel. Trial is always open and public.

Another important measure concerns prison administration, which has been thoroughly reformed and made more humane. In the past, "Indian prisons were dreadful holes, whose inmates had to be kept in stocks and fetters, or were held down under flat bamboos, not on account of their crimes, but because from the insecurity of the jails, the jailor had no other means of preventing their escape". There is little in common between those dungeons and the prisons of our own day. India has, in fact, advanced farther than many other countries with regard to prison administration.

The legal code has now become more humane; many of the crude and barbarous penalties inflicted in the past, like mutilation, burning and torture, have disappeared. Following the example of England, Borstal schools have been established, where young offenders are given an opportunity to reform themselves. Nor is the criminal left uncared-for after he leaves the prison. Since the object of the State is to make him again a useful member of society, much valuable work is being done for his uplift by the various Discharged Prisoners' Associations.

CHAPTER XVII

THE DEFENCE OF THE MOTHERLAND

Living amidst the peaceful conditions of to-day, we are apt to forget the suffering caused to our country by various foreign invaders in the past. Though India is enclosed by the high mountain wall of the Himalayas, this is easily penetrated by passes on the north-west, the most important of which is the grim Khyber Pass. Through these gates there have poured into India, from time to time, wild hordes of invaders from the deserts and highlands of Central Asia, bursting into the verdant plains below.

Muhammud of Ghazni came down with hosts of greedy adventurers every winter, to strip the temples of their precious ornaments and secure captives for the slave markets of Central Asia. When Nadir Shah occupied Delhi, eight thousand men, women and children were murdered in a single day, and the city was burnt to the ground. Within a few years of the departure of Nadir Shah, Ahmed Shah Abdali made no less than five incursions into India. He rode his Afghan cavalry over the face of the land, massacring the people and laying waste the countryside. Once, his horsemen suddenly darted down on the city of Muttra in the midst of a Hindu festival. An immense crowd of peaceful, innocent pilgrims had gathered there. Before they could escape, they were

cut down in the streets, and many men and women were carried away as slaves.

This menace from the north-west lasted even into the nineteenth century, and as recently as 1919 a serious attempt was made at an invasion of India by Afghanistan. The danger from the north-west has been chronic on account of the war-like nature of the tribes who dwell on the frontier. They were accustomed from time immemorial to supplement their scanty food by organised raids on the less hardy people in the plains below. Living in a mountainous country, they have developed a hardy physique. These formidable fighting men have acquired added military efficiency by their possession of firearms. A casual visitor to these regions little realises the danger to India that lurks there. Crossing the rope-bridge of the Chitral valley, he sees before him a pleasant and peaceful spot, where the inhabitants lead apparently calm and quiet lives. But there is always the fear that, given a favourable moment, the whole of this area would be seething with tumultuous hordes of frontier men, quick of eye and dead sure with their rifles. On the north-east, for about a thousand miles, the border of Burma is also open to invasion.

No dominion of the British Empire is so much exposed to danger of invasion as India. She has a long coast line, and her harbours also are not defensible. Hence, it is necessary for her to have complete control over her sea-board, as otherwise invaders could strike at her from the sea, and the extensive trade built up by her in modern times would be

seriously endangered. There are people who will yet remember the raid of the German ship "Emden" in 1914. During the Great War, this cruiser managed to elude the British navy and was daring enough to throw a few bombs on Madras. It inflicted serious damage on the merchant-ships that were plying in the Indian waters.

All these illustrate the paramount need for the adequate defence of our country ; and this has been secured by the powerful defences which the British Government has set up. A strong army, well-disciplined and well-organized and equipped with the latest appliances of military science, is able to defend the long frontiers of India ; and that India is at present unable to defend herself against external aggression without the help of British forces must be clear to any unprejudiced observer.

The steady aim of the Government is to train up Indians for the military profession, so that ultimately India can look after her own defence with an army consisting purely of Indians. There has been a gradual increase in the Indianisation of the higher ranks of the army, and recently there has been established at Dehra Dun an Indian Military Academy to train up our young men. There is also a military school at Jullunder in the Punjab. Moreover, by providing scope for military training to University students and to men engaged in civil occupations, an attempt has been made to create a reserve, which could be called on to defend the country in times of very serious danger.

For the first time in the history of India, she has an organised and efficient naval force to defend her coasts. In 1932, an Indian Air Force was also formed. It plays a very important part in the defence of India, especially in the difficult mountain country of the frontier, where advancing groups of hostile tribesmen can be easily scattered by bombs dropped by aeroplanes. The fear of an aerial bombing has often ensured peace and order, and thus avoided much unnecessary loss of life and money. Here again, Indian candidates are sent by the Government to England for training as commissioned officers to serve in the Indian Air Force.

General insecurity and fear of foreign invasion has, therefore, now become a thing of the past. A sense of freedom from danger has contributed to the steady progress of the country. Populous towns and villages have grown up, where men and women carry on their peaceful avocations, conscious that so long as modern methods of warfare are available to them, they have nothing to fear.

CHAPTER XVIII

BROADENING FREEDOM

In the earlier chapters, we have sketched the story of India's progress in material prosperity and social welfare during the past century under the fostering care of the British Government. We shall in this chapter show how Great Britain is carrying out another mission. She is gradually evolving a system of self-government suited to the nature and the needs of the Indian people.

We have already seen that India in the past was ruled by absolute monarchs. Their powers were not limited by any authority. The king himself made the laws for the country. He was also the head of the executive, and administered through his servants the laws which he himself had made. He was the supreme judge as well. Thus he united in himself all the three functions of the government—legislative, executive and judicial. His subjects had no voice in the government of the country. The king had, of course, his Council of Ministers, but these were chosen only by him. Nor was he bound to accept their advice. A council consisting of representatives chosen or elected by the people and taking part in the government of the country would have seemed a strange idea in those days. In the insecurity and lawlessness

which prevailed through the greater part of India's past, the people had no political interests or ambitions.

With the establishment of British rule in India, democratic ideas made their appearance. A desire was now felt by the people to have a voice in the government of the country. British rule, by establishing for the first time a supreme Government whose authority is unquestioned in any part of the land, and by enforcing peace and order throughout the country, has naturally awakened in Indians a sense of political unity. Besides, English education has spread a knowledge of the English system of government, and during the last half a century the Indian people have been anxious to adapt English democratic ideals to Indian conditions.

British policy in India has always been guided by the principle that the Indians themselves must be trained to govern their country. The Government has therefore been gradually Indianising the services, and developing representative institutions.

As early as 1827, Sir Thomas Munro wrote that the time would soon arrive when Indians would be employed in almost every office, however high. Ever since, there has been a continuous increase in the proportion of Indians employed in the administration of the country. In 1853, the Indian Civil Service was thrown open to Indians who passed the examination held in London. Since then, the Civil Service Examination is held in India also. A distinguished son of the soil, Sir S. P. Sinha, was created a Peer in

1919. Lord Sinha was the first Indian to take his seat in the British House of Lords, to become a Minister under the British Government, and to be the Governor of an Indian province. The purely British element in the administrative and judicial services has been steadily reduced, numbering at present just over 3000.

The first step towards self-government was taken when Municipalities, Taluk Boards and District Boards were established to look after local affairs, such as health and maintenance of hospitals and, later on, primary and secondary education. The members of these bodies are elected by the people.

In 1858 when India came under the Crown, she was governed by the Governor-General with the help of a Council composed of four English officials. In England, Indian affairs were looked after by a Minister of the Queen, called the Secretary of State for India. The Governor-General was responsible to the Secretary of State for the administration of India; the Secretary, in his turn, was responsible to the British Parliament.

Three years later, a Legislative Council for all India was established. This consisted of the Governor-General, the members of his Council and some non-officials, including Indians, nominated by the Governor-General. Thus, by admitting Indians into the Council, a beginning was made to give them training in the art of government. This Legislative Council assisted in making laws for the country. Similar Councils were established in the provinces also to help

the Governors in making laws for their respective provinces. All the members of these Legislative Councils were nominated by the Governor. But in 1909 the people were granted, for the first time, the right to elect a few representatives to these Councils.

India's services in the Great War paved the way for her more rapid progress towards self-government. Her sacrifices were fully recognised by Britain, and in 1917 it was definitely announced in the British Parliament that India was to be given self-government by stages, so that she also might develop into a self-governing unit of the British Empire. Two years later, the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms were introduced, and numerous and far-reaching changes in the Indian constitution followed. The system of government established by the Reform Act of 1919 is the one obtaining today.

To deal with affairs common to all India, two Legislative bodies have been established—the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State. The majority of the members in the Legislative Assembly are elected by the people. The Governor-General is the supreme head of the Government in India, and all enactments are subject to his final approval.

In the Provinces, a form of Government called 'Dyarchy' has been established. The responsibility for the administration of the province is divided between the Governor-in-Council and the Legislature. This is a definite advance towards self-government, for practically half the administration has been transferred to the control of the legislature. Thus, such

subjects as education, sanitation, medical administration and agriculture, called Transferred Subjects, have been entrusted to certain popular Ministers. The responsibility for the administration of the other subjects is retained by the Governor-in-Council. These are called Reserved Subjects. The Governor does not ordinarily interfere with the administration of the Transferred Subjects, except where he finds it necessary to do so in the interests of peace, order and efficient government.

The Ministers are selected by the Governor from among the elected members of the Council. They are responsible to the Legislative Council for the administration of the Transferred Subjects. The Provincial Councils have become more representative of the people, since a majority of their members are elected. A considerable measure of self-government has thus been granted to the provinces. The Provincial Councils and the Ministers have ample scope for developing the 'nation-building' departments under their control. In the fifteen years that have passed by since the reforms were introduced, considerable experience has been gained by our legislatures.

The Act of 1919 provided for the appointment, after the lapse of ten years, of a Commission to examine the progress made by India under the Reforms, and to report what further advance in self-government could be made. A Statutory Commission was appointed in 1927 with Sir John Simon as its Chairman, and it submitted its report in 1930.

Further steps were thereupon taken to reform the

Indian constitution. A Round Table Conference consisting of representatives from British India and the Indian States sat in London to consider the Indian problem in all its bearings. On November 12, 1930, this momentous conference was opened by His Majesty the King Emperor in the Royal Gallery of the House of Lords. The proposals formulated by the Conference were referred to a Joint Committee, consisting of representatives from both Houses of the British Parliament. Delegates from India were invited to confer with the Committee. The outcome of the Committee's work is the Bill, which is now before the House of Commons.

The new Bill aims at securing a larger measure of self-government for India. It is an advance on existing conditions in three important respects.

At present, the Central Government exercises extensive authority over the provinces. In future, it will have no control over provincial matters. The Bill provides for complete self-government in the provinces. The five major provinces will each have two legislative bodies, the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The other provinces will have only one House, namely the Assembly. The Provincial Legislative Assembly has been made entirely representative of the people in the sense that all its members are to be elected. Dyarchy is to be abolished. Almost all the Reserved Subjects are to be handed over to the administration of the Ministers, who will be completely responsible to the Legislature.

The Bill contemplates the conversion of India from a unitary State into a Federation. Federation is a form of government which combines into a single state, for concerted action in matters of national concern, a number of governments which are independent in their own spheres. This form of government is peculiarly suited to a country like India with its vast extent, its diversity, and its conflicting interests. An All-India Federation, as aimed at in the Bill, will include the provinces of British India and the Indian States.

The Federal Legislature will consist of two Houses, the Federal Legislative Assembly and the Council of State, composed of representatives elected by each of the Provincial Legislatures and representatives of the Indian States. The present Legislative Assembly has no control over the Central Government. But, in the new Bill, a beginning has been made towards granting popular control over the Central Government as well. The Bill provides that, except in certain subjects like defence, external and ecclesiastical affairs, the Governor-General will act according to the advice of Ministers selected by him from among the members of the Legislature.

Certain special powers have been vested in the Governor-General. These are essential in the interests of good government, and are found in the constitutions of advanced democratic countries like America and the British Dominions.

The Bill extends the franchise also considerably. Under the present constitution, only three per cent of

the population are entitled to vote ; the Bill raises it to fourteen per cent, thus giving voting power to about three crores of men and sixty lakhs of women.

The Bill which is now before the British Parliament realises most of India's political aspirations. The time is not far off when India will take her place as a self-governing nation, like the Dominions, in the British Commonwealth.

CHAPTER XIX

OUR RULING CHIEFS

The Indian States occupy a large space on the map of India ; they cover, in the aggregate, over a third of the total area, and have nearly a quarter of the total population of the country. There are about seven hundred of these States, including the smallest among them ; and they are scattered throughout the country in different proportions. A large number of them are concentrated in Rajputana, Central India and Kathiawar, and they together occupy about half of the total area of the States. This large group is connected with Hyderabad, the great kingdom of the Deccan, by a series of small States that lie in the form of an arch.

Individually, the States vary to a large extent not only in size and population, but also with regard to the degree of independence and powers enjoyed by their rulers. Hyderabad is as large as the United kingdom ; but Mt. Abu and a large number of others are hardly more than respectable country estates. About a hundred of the States have full sovereign powers in their internal affairs, the British Government controlling only their Imperial and Foreign relations. A still larger number have less independence, being subject to the advisory jurisdiction of

the Indian Government, while the remainder of the States have been allowed only civil and criminal jurisdiction within their territories. In the larger States, the Government of India is represented by a separate Resident for each; but where a number of them form a natural group, as in Rajputana, there is a single Agent for the whole group.

The States display as many varieties of caste, creed, languages and customs as British India; and they are in different stages of social and political evolution. But the spread of Western culture in India has affected the States also; and, as in British India, there has been marked moral and material progress in recent times. The necessity for conceding to the subjects a voice in the government of the state is being more and more realised by the Indian Princes; and some thirty of them have already established Legislative Councils, and all are trying to adjust themselves to modern ideals of democracy.

The first important State that a visitor gets into, on entering India through the Khyber Pass, is Kashmir, which has been called 'the Celestial Garden of India'. Second only to Hyderabad in area, it has been particularly favoured by Nature, both in its magnificent scenery and in its natural resources. The soil is exceptionally fertile, and the forests are extensive. There are rich mineral resources like coal and iron, and valuable mines of precious stones. The inhabitants are physically a fine race. In recent years, there has been considerable industrial and commercial development. The present Maharajah is

taking keen interest in encouraging sericulture—the main industry of the State. The fine Kashmir shawls have become deservedly famous not only in India but in other countries as well. The hydro-electric scheme started by the Government has given further impetus to the development of industry.

Proceeding south of Kashmir, we come to the three famous Sikh States, Kapurthala, Patiala and Nabha, which have produced some of the most hardy fighters in India. The Maharajah of Patiala is a famous sportsman, and takes keen interest in the physical education of his subjects. Agriculture in Patiala has been greatly benefited by its canal system, which is about 2000 miles in length.

The romantic land of Rajaputana, to which the above three States form a gateway, includes twenty States, some of which are among the most advanced in India. Bikaner is well-known for its military efficiency; its famous Camel Corps did good service against the Turks during the Great War. The Maharajah has been appointed by the British Government as one of the delegates of the League of Nations. The Sutlej irrigation scheme undertaken by the Maharajah is estimated to irrigate over 340,000 acres of land. Jaipur and Jodhpur are States with larger revenue, while Alwar, though smaller in area, is an equally progressive State. There is a venerable and ancient atmosphere clinging to the above States of Rajasthan.

The Kathiawar States form a sort of extension of Rajaputana to the Arabian Sea. They are smaller and less rich than the States of Rajaputana, but

their administration has been always beneficial, as is witnessed by the general contentment of the Kathiawar peasantry. Navnagar is one of the most progressive States in this group. Its present ruler, the Jam Sahib, familiarly known as 'Ranji', the famous cricketeer and idol of the British public, has developed to its utmost the Kathiawar Port and has thus given a strong impetus to the trade and commerce of Kathiawar.

Close to Kathiawar lies Baroda, which has been called a model Indian State. Its ruler was among the earliest to adopt modern democratic ideas, by establishing a Legislative Council for the State. The most remarkable achievement of the Gaekwar has been in the field of education. Primary education has been made compulsory in the State, and the percentage of literates is larger than that of British India. Agriculture has been improved by the encouragement of Co-operative Societies, establishment of model farms, the grant of loans by the State for improvements, and the maintenance of Veterinary Hospitals. Special facilities and encouragement are also given to the starting of industrial concerns.

Among the large number of Central Indian States, some of the prominent ones are Gwalior, Indore and Bhopal. In these States also, the influence of modern ideals of Government, education and industrial progress, has been felt.

Hyderabad is the Premier State of India, not only because it is the largest in area and population, but also because it is the most advanced among the

Indian States in many respects. Its fame as a centre of culture and learning extends far back to ancient history, and to this day it continues to maintain the good name that has been earned for it by its rulers. In recent years especially, it has shown an all-round moral and material progress under the wise guidance of the present Nizam and his trusted advisers.

The constitution of the State has been reformed and adapted to modern conditions. A Legislative Council, consisting of a proportion of elected members, has been set up, which has already done valuable constructive work. The Executive Council is a very efficient body. A Civil Service School has been established, and officers are selected by competitive examination. Hyderabad has also made a unique and successful experiment in education, namely, the imparting of higher education in Urdu. The Oosmania University has already more than justified itself. The achievements of the State in the field of agriculture, industry, commerce and all other spheres of life, have been remarkable; its immense irrigation works, industrial schools, girls schools, and the State Railway, prove beyond doubt that the State is marching abreast of the times.

An equally progressive State is Mysore, which is the fourth largest State in India. It has made more progress in constitutional reforms than most of the other States. Its Parliament consists of two Houses, with a large percentage of elected members. Primary education has been made compulsory, and a vigorous campaign has been started to remove illiteracy.

An interesting development is the planning of education among peasants by means of the wireless. The State has extensive irrigation systems, and the Kannambadi Dam is one of the biggest of its kind. Though Mysore is mainly an agricultural country, its industries have developed marvellously in modern times. The cotton and woollen mills at Bangalore produce some of the finest varieties of cloths in India. The gold-fields of Kolar and the iron mines of Bhadravathi are worked efficiently. The Government Sandal Oil Factory and Arts and Crafts Works are very successful enterprises, while the Government Soap Factory has justly established a name for itself throughout India. One of the greatest undertakings of the Government is the Hydro-Electric Project at Sivasamudram, which supplies electric energy at cheap rate to gold-fields and oil and textile mills.

To the south of Mysore, there are three States, Travancore, Cochin and Pudukotta, the last being a very small but progressive State. Cochin has been in the forefront for many decades, and is one of the best-governed among the Indian States. Its outstanding achievement is in education; the literates among males are about 32%, and among females 12% of the population. The State irrigation system is extensive. The Legislative Council, which has a large percentage of elected members, has passed a number of beneficial laws. The State owns also a Railway System, and has a share in the huge harbour scheme at Cochin.

Travancore is the southern-most Indian State, and it has to its credit a long history of good government and well-ordered progress, which few other Indian States can boast of. Under a succession of able and enlightened rulers and Dewans, it has grown into one of the most advanced States in India.

The Travancore Legislative Council was established forty-years ago, and was the first institution of its kind in the history of an Indian State. By a series of Reform Acts, the Council has been made more and more representative of the people, until today it has got a majority of elected members and has been granted by the Maharajah more powers and privileges than the Councils in most other Indian States. Education, both primary and higher, has progressed more in Travancore than in any other part of India, and it has the largest percentage of literates.

In recent years, the Indian Princes have generally realised the necessity as well as the benefits of joint action. As a result, the Chamber of Indian Princes has been formed. They are also realising the close economic, social and political bond between the States and British India. They welcomed the idea of an all-India Federation, when it was first mooted. It is to be hoped that the Federal constitution, which is to come into existence in the immediate future, will open a new era of progress and prosperity not only to British India but to the Indian States as well.

